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ABSTRACT

This report is a compilation of the substance of the presentations and activities prepared for a graduate course in The Junior Community College offered as part of the faculty/staff development program at Salem Community College. The program focused on a broad range of topics related to the community college concept while also dealing specifically with topics related to the improvement of instructional and curriculum development skills. Ten chapters comprise the document: (1) Birth to Adolescence (of the junior/community college); (2) The Philosophy and Function of the Community College; (3) The Community College Student; (4) Comprehensive Faculty/Comprehensive College; (5) Faculty Development; (6) Faculty Evaluation--Who--Why--How?; (7) The Administration of the Community College; (8) The Management of Conflict in the Community College (the role of faculty organizations); (9) Community College Curriculum Development; and (10) The Value of Occupational and Liberal Arts Education in the Community College. Contributors include Richard R. Smith, David E. Kapel, Maurice R. Duperre, Brian Donnelly, and Charles R. Doty. (JDS)

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THE TWO YEAR COMPREHENSIVE COLLEGE

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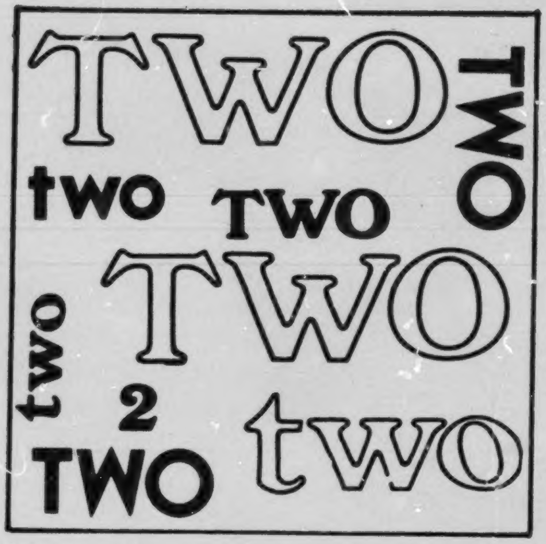

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A report of the proceedings of the faculty and staff development program conducted at Salem Community College in cooperation with Glassboro State College

EDITED BY RICHARD SMITH Ed.D.

JC 770 041

THE TWO YEAR
COMPREHENSIVE COLLEGE

A Report of the Proceedings of the Faculty and Staff Development Program Conducted at Salem Community College in Cooperation with Glassboro State College

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1975

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FOREWORD

This report was prepared as an integral component of the faculty/staff development program conducted at Salem Community College in cooperation with the faculty, staff and services of Glassboro State College. The report represents a recording of the substance of those presentations and activities specifically prepared for The Junior Community College graduate course that was offered on the campus of Salem Community College.

The contributors prepared their papers and presentations simultaneously while under contract to Glassboro State College through funding resulting from a cooperative agreement with Salem Community College.

This report has been prepared for distribution to the faculty and staff of Salem Community College in an effort to promote their continuous professional development.

The editor wishes to acknowledge the support and cooperation of the faculty of the Department of Educational Administration of Glassboro State College. The contributions and work of Mrs. Babs Campsen, Barbara Thibault, and Nancy Smith are greatly appreciated.

R.R.S.

PREFACE

The growth of the community college movement in New Jersey has been phenomenal since the passage of the enabling legislation of 1962. Salem Community College is the newest member of the system of public two-year colleges of New Jersey. Salem Community College had previously been a post-secondary vocational technical institution.

The vision and support of President Herbert Donaghay and Dean William Mark in the development of the program must be applauded. The planning process involved members of the faculty and administration of both Salem Community College and Glassboro State College. Graduate courses were offered to the faculty and staff of Salem Community College on both campuses. Those courses offered on the Salem campus were specifically designed to meet the needs of their faculty as a group, while participation in courses on the Glassboro campus enabled participants to pursue individual professional goals. Preferred scheduling arrangements were made available to participating faculty members.

The program activities focused on a broad spectrum of topics directly related to the community college concept while also dealing specifically with topics directly related to the improvement of instructional and curriculum development skills.

Dr. Richard R. Smith

CHAPTER ONE

BIRTH TO ADOLESCENCE

The two-year college has frequently been cited as the fastest growing segment of higher education. This institution has attempted to provide for the needs of the people. As a result, it has been referred to as "democracy's college," and "the people's college;" it has been viewed as that institution which has provided the opportunity for many people to move upward in terms of educational and occupational levels.

> There are analysts of the community and junior colleges of America who tend to forget that, although major growth has occurred in recent years, the history of two-year colleges dates back nearly 75 years. There are a few traditions. More than 50 years ago, Leonard V. Koos, one of the early pundits of junior college education, was referring to "the junior college movement". (18:258)

James Thornton has viewed the contemporary community college as developing in three stages:

> The first and longest lasted from 1850 to 1920. During that period the idea and the acceptable practice of the junior college, a separate institution offering the first two years of baccalaureate curriculums, were achieved. Next, the concepts of terminal and semiprofessional education in the junior college, which had been described earlier, gained widespread currency with the foundation of the American Association of Junior Colleges in 1920. By the end of World War II in 1945, this idea was an established part of the junior college concept. The changes in post-high-school education brought by the war emphasized a third element of responsibility, service to the adults of the community, and so the period after 1945 has seen the development of the operative definition of the community junior college. Finally, the rapid growth in college enrollments during the 1960's seems to emphasize once more the transfer function of the junior college, and to bring increasing recognition of its importance as a part of the system of higher education. (38:46)

The two-year college as we know it today has been affected by many variables. Established institutions from both the public and private sectors viewed the two year college as either a desirable extension of their services, or as an institution to be amputated from their existing structure. The motivations for these perceptions were varied; philosophical, psychological, and financial considerations were frequently expressed by leaders who represented existing academies, universities, and public school systems.

THRUSTS FROM ABOVE AND BELOW

The private junior college was the first type of two year college to be founded in the United States. This private institution has been recognized as having provided the foundation upon which the two year college of today was built. Its greatest impact was felt after 1900. In fact, Hillway referred to the period of 1850 through 1900 as the "Preparatory Period." Some have claimed that Monticello College, founded in 1835, was the first private junior college to exist in the United States. Others have attempted to build the same case for Lasell Junior College in Massachusetts. Leicester Junior College of Leicester, Massachusetts, and Lewis Institute of Illinois are readily found in the literature as being involved in that dispute which has centered around the identification of the first real junior college. Hillway cited Decatur Baptist College in Texas, founded in 1897, as one of the earliest junior colleges which remained in existence. He also stated that "technically, the negro colleges probably were the very first junior colleges operating in America" (23:39). More than fifty private junior colleges were organized before the end of the nineteenth century; by 1900 only eight of thos institutions remained in operation.

The early private junior colleges either replaced existing academies, or they extended the offerings of the academies as a result of many factors. The academies from which the private junior colleges evolved were generally church related, and offered either elementary or secondary curriculum or both. The academies viewed the junior college route as a means by which they might:

1. Broaden their curriculum
2. Extend their curriculum upward
3. Keep students for a longer period of time for advanced religious training
4. Obtain additional financial support
5. Upgrade their prestige
6. Become affiliated with higher education

The private junior college was not only free to view the educational climate of the day, but was also free to react by developing a new institution to provide grades 13 and 14 for transfer purposes (24:6-7).

As early as 1854 the University of Georgia attempted to abolish its first two years of study. The University felt that the students were frequently too immature to achieve, and pointed to the attrition rate as an indicator of that problem. This goal of "amputation" of the lower division from the upper division was never realized. The University closed as a result of the Civil War, and never resumed activity toward that goal after reopening in 1866. In 1892 the University of California reorganized its structure and established a "junior certificate" for admission to the upper division.

The Universities of Michigan and Stanford also considered the dropping of the first two years from their programs. Their leaders expressed the opinion that the first two years of college study should be considered within the realm of responsibility of the public secondary schools. This consideration was eventually abandoned by both institutions as a result of a lack of faith in the ability of existing secondary schools to serve a lower division function on the part of Michigan, and as a result of financial considerations as expressed by Stanford.

Many of the university leaders of that day were either products of, or directly affected by the German system of secondary education. In that system, students would enter the university directly from the "Gymnasium" or the fourteenth grade. Folwell of Minnesota, White of Cornell, and Tappan at Michigan were proponents of the establishment of a similar system in the United States. The President of the University of California, Alexis F. Lange, expressed the need for the public schools to extend their offerings beyond the 12th grade.

Both Charles Eliot of Harvard and William Rainey Harper of Chicago were in favor of altering the time requirements of the public schools and the university. Eliot wanted to shorten the time required for the completion of undergraduate studies to three years. Harper suggested that public secondary educational systems include the eighth grade and the first two years of college. Andrew Draper of Illinois, Richard Jesse of Missouri, and David Starr Jordan of Stanford also devoted their time and energies to various aspects of the problem. Some leaders have viewed the university as the major initiator of the junior college concept. Fields has stated:

> Thus in the early beginnings of the junior college the major impetus was from the university. The importance of this influence is perhaps best summed up thus: the greatest growth of the junior college took place in those states where the leadership of the university was favorable and dynamic. (14:19)

An example of such leadership was demonstrated by William Rainey Harper, President of the University of Chicago. President Harper wanted to differentiate between the collegiate and university levels. In 1892 he separated the University of Chicago into the "Academic College" and the "University College". These titles were changed to "junior college" and "senior college" four years later. He accomplished much for the cause of the junior college. He was instrumental in the founding of Lewis Institute in Chicago in 1896, and Bradley Polytechnic Institute in Peoria in 1897. He was also a prime mover in the establishment of Joliet Junior College in 1901 under the sponsorship of the Joliet Board of Education. This was accomplished by the adding of college courses to the secondary program. This was initially viewed as an extension of secondary education within the public sector. Joliet Junior College is generally considered to be the oldest publically supported two year institution which still exists. Joliet Junior College represents the beginning of the two year college movement within the public sector. The natural extension of the two year college within the public sector was the development of state systems of two year colleges:

> With the American concept that public education is a function of the state, it is not surprising that public two-year colleges have developed in different ways and in different degrees in the various states. (29:13)

STATE MOVEMENTS

The review of the development of the public two year college indicates a great degree of variance among the states. Some states committed their resources to the movement long before others. Differences among states were also evidenced in terms of the structures which were provided. The Pennsylvania community colleges are supervised by the State Board of Education which is responsible for all of higher education in that state. A plan for the development of community colleges has been developed and structured around service-area boundaries. The development of community colleges in Pennsylvania was somewhat hindered by the existence of branch campuses in some communities. Hawaii placed their two year colleges under the Board of Regents of the University of Hawaii. The State of Minnesota chose a state-level board of control. New Jersey community colleges each have a local board of trustees which are appointed by the freeholders of the county in which the college exists. In New Jersey the State Board of Higher Education is responsible for all of the two year colleges; therefore, the local boards look to that state body for regulation and guidance. The two year colleges of Illinois are supervised by the Illinois Junior College Board. The Florida State Junior College Board coordinates a system of junior colleges which exist within specific districts governed by local boards of trustees.

> There is recognition in all states that there is need for post-high school education. Historical developments in some states have either prevented, curtailed, or delayed the establishment of community junior colleges. Active opposition on the part of existing colleges, especially their presidents, has delayed junior college development. The failure of state legislatures to

> appropriate funds--even though enabling legislation was passed--prevented implementation of existing laws. In a few states institutional jealousy and empire-building has inhibited growth of community colleges. (40:277-278)

The American two year college, for the most part, developed as a segment of the public school system. It was supported and directly affected by that system. The early public junior colleges were extensions of secondary education. Not only were the curricular offerings closely coordinated with their sponsor high schools, but they also shared both human and physical resources.

In 1907 legislation was passed in the State of California which permitted local school districts to offer college level courses within their boundaries. Fresno Junior College was then founded in 1910. Further legislation was approved in 1921 which authorized local school districts to establish junior colleges.

In 1931 Illinois passed enabling legislation which provided a legal basis for the establishment of junior colleges within public school systems. These junior colleges were typically housed in a high school building, or in new buildings erected on a high school campus. In 1959 the General Assembly passed a bill which encouraged the establishment of separate junior college districts with local boards which had taxing authority (12:28-29).

Eleven public junior colleges existed in Minnesota in 1963. These colleges had a history of local control and support. Rochester Junior College had been in operation since 1915. These colleges had been financed entirely by the local school districts in which they were located until the legislature authorized state aid for operation in 1957 (22:40-41). The Kansas junior college movement was established in 1917 when the first enabling act was passed by the legislature (21:18-20).

New Jersey, through the County College Act of 1962, opened its first public county colleges in 1966. New Jersey was slow in starting, but it moved rapidly to the point that fifteen public two year colleges were in operation in September of 1971. These colleges serve established boundary areas, and have been under the supervision of the State Board of Higher Education.

Five public community colleges existed in North Carolina during the 1962-63 academic year. North Carolina had been faced with a unique problem. The community colleges were within the jurisdiction of the State Board of Higher Education, while the industrial education centers were under the control of the State Board of Education. Both of these were public tax-supported institutions. The State has since provided a structure whereby both types of institutions report to one state agency; the State Board of Education.

The Community College Act of Hawaii established a state wide system of community colleges under the University of Hawaii Board of Regents in 1964. When this act was passed four existing technical schools were converted to community colleges (25:5-7).

No publicly supported community colleges existed in South Dakota as late as 1971. The two privately supported junior colleges which existed enrolled a total of 378 students in October of 1970.

INTERACTION WITH THE ENVIRONMENT

The extension of the years of free education through the establishment of local two-year colleges has been the expression

> of a new social policy of the nation. Or perhaps I should say a further thrust of an old policy. For one could simplify the history of American public education in the last hundred years by noting the steps in the movement to make universal the opportunities hitherto open only to the well-to-do. First came the provision of elementary schooling at public expense; then came the free high schools and efforts to provide instruction for a wide variety of talents (the widely comprehensive four-year high school); lastly, the growth of the equally comprehensive public two-year college, the open-door college, as it has been sometimes called.
>
> James B. Conant (6:iv)

The history of higher education as a reactor to the needs of the common man is not impressive when we view the nature of the classical college or university. Attendance at an institution of higher education during the early centuries of this nation was the privilege of the wealthy. Those institutions were not viewed by the masses as having a sympathetic ear turned toward their needs and problems.

> The classical colleges, with their limited curriculums, existed to transmit culture and class values to a privileged elite. Those institutions were neither willing nor able to respond to 19th century industrial and social demands for broader curricula, and choices of subject matter including business, technical, and agricultural courses. (34:9-10)

The varied components of our society have continued to change throughout the history of the United States. As change has occurred man has been faced with the tasks of both identification and interpretation. Some of the crises of society have gained immediate prominance, while others have gradually moved into the spotlight. Those variables which have created societal change have typically been both subtle and complex. Occupational trends, governmental priorities, population changes, technological advancements, and economic factors have all had their isolated and combined impact on our society. Fuel is thrown on the fire when we realize that the interdependence of man has increased as he has attempted to maintain his identity within a society of increased size.

> Man's reaction to the problems he has created with his vastly expanded knowledge has been to organize institutions of increasing size and complexity through which to improve his own and the groups responses to challenges that cannot be met individually. (7:48)

The story of the development of an institution is an account of the way needs as identified by society have been met. Educators, government leaders, and citizens have looked toward educational institutions for help in coping with social change. Havighurst stated that the:

> Present state and structure of the society is mirrored in its schools and reflected through the schools into the lives of its children - At the same time a society which is undergoing internal change uses education as a means of facilitating these changes. (19:120)

When speaking of the educational implications of social change, Maclean and Dodson stated that:

> Without rapidly increasing knowledge of the nature of the forces and of their impact upon our people and our institutions, we can do no more than thrash and flounder in blind opportunism with a certainty of enormous wastage of human talents and energies and a threatening shadow of disaster. On the other hand, with knowledge and insight into scientific, technological, political, economic, social, and humanistic trends, we may be able to use these very forces to give higher education new blood, bone, and sinew, and to chart the direction and speed of its development in an expanding universe of junior colleges, colleges, and universities. (27:35)

The community college has been viewed as that segment of higher education which has accepted the responsibility of attempting to improve the condition of man in our society. The worth of the individual was recognized as a desirable concept early in the history of our nation.

> The American policy should be to give higher education to each individual somewhat in proportion to his natural ability and thus to provide higher cultural education for every occupation to the extent that the expenditure can be justified in terms of the needs of the community, both cultural and economic. (38:33)

Medsker cited the belief that educational opportunity beyond the high school was one of the forces which promoted the development of the two year college. He identified two factors which have had a bearing on the degree to which the two year college has been successful in equalizing educational opportunity. One factor which he cited is the American desire to move from one social class to another. The second factor was viewed as the faith in higher education which has developed in the American people (29).

The community college provides an example of an institution which has attempted to offer educational opportunity to a heterogeneous group which represents a cross section of the population. Educators are increasingly recognizing that this nation cannot afford to waste its human resources. In reaction to these recognitions the public two year college has adopted a philosophy of equal educational opportunity for all and espoused an ideal of open admissions (34:9). At a time when four year colleges and universities have become increasingly selective, the concept of equal opportunity for all has become increasingly significant.

> In addition to the idea that universal higher education is the right of any person who can profit from it, the community college movement was also founded in the conviction that colleges exist to serve the society that supports them. (34:10)

The literature is filled with statements that the two year college not only assists people in raising their educational, occupational, and economic levels; it also has attempted to promote the democratic standard. Those factors seem to be directly related. It has been claimed that not only is democracy related to the state of economic development, but the levels of income and education of a country are related. It has been suggested that the higher the educational level of a nation's population, the better the chances for a democracy to survive.

The private two-year college was initially concerned with the transfer student. The student of the contemporary two-year college is representative of a wider age range. The recognition of the need for skill training has motivated many students to take advantage of the vocational technical curriculum of the community college. Rapid technological change has prompted many older students to return to an educational setting to upgrade existing skills. Increased leisure time coupled with the extended life-span has prompted many of our mature citizens to view the two-year college as the local center for avocational and cultural activity. All of the previously mentioned social forces have combined to exert a pressure on the two-year college to be multi-functional.

FINANCIAL EXIGENCIES AND FEDERAL ASSISTANCE

> During the first half of the 19th century the two types of colleges and universities, publicly controlled and privately controlled, developed side by side. Both were greatly influenced by the European universities of which their leading professors were products. But these European universities were organized to serve a society not predominantly democratic. University education was for the leisure classes, the government leaders, and members of the professions.
>
> The American institutions, functioning in somewhat the same fashion, maintained chiefly the classical and professional curricula. They made only slight adaptations to the needs of a pioneer people.

> A study of such fields as agriculture and the mechanic arts was beneath their academic dignity. (5:1)

The Morrill Land Grant Act was passed in 1862. This legislation attempted to offer a practical instructional program to the industrial classes. This represented a protest against the dominance of the classics in higher education. The Land Grant Act was the first response of the federal government through higher education to the needs of the people. It led to the development of programs of study concerned with agricultural and mechanical arts. That Act of 1862 recognized that each individual should be provided with the opportunity to progress as far as his abilities could carry him. Federal support was provided through the income which was derived from those public lands which were made available to the States. The agricultural needs of the people were again responded to when the Hatch Act of 1887 provided a system of experimental agricultural stations. The Second Morrill Act of 1890 provided direct federal appropriations which supplemented the income from the public lands.

> The Morrill Act of 1862 and the early land-grant colleges had profound effects on American higher education that are particularly apparent in the contemporary community college. The land-grant movement brought a new kind of education to the people. It revolutionized the curriculum of higher education through its emphasis on technology, agriculture, and applied science. The very success of land-grant colleges during the past century has modified their roles and functions. Gradually they became universities, and many are now national and even international centers for research and for graduate and professional study. This transformation has closely paralleled the emergence of comprehensive community colleges which, in turn, are accepting, reshaping, and extending the service philosophy of the land-grant movement. (6:9)

The "Great Depression" of the 1930's heightened the intensity of the basic needs of the population. As unemployment increased, the ability of the man on the street to provide for the needs of his family decreased. The mental health of the nation was extremely low as people formed lines to obtain whatever commodities were available. The magnitude of the waste of our nation's human and industrial resources was staggering. A new type of two year college emerged during that time in New Jersey. The recognition that the Federally Funded Emergency Junior College existed at that time has not been widely publicized. Both the life span and geographic location of that institution was limited. When Franklin D. Roosevelt was inaugurated in 1933 he took immediate action to improve the economic situation. The Congress passed the Emergency Relief Act which appropriated $500,000,000 for the relief of the unemployed. The federal government was to work in cooperation with the states and municipalities.

The Director of the New Jersey Emergency Relief Administration received a request to fund a junior college to be established in Union County. A study had been conducted locally which recommended the establishment of the two year institution; to be staffed by unemployed teachers, and attended by unemployed students. Union County Junior College opened with 243 students on October 16, 1933. During the next twelve months five additional junior colleges were established by the New Jersey Relief Administration. These institutions were basically concerned with the transfer function.

The Work Projects Administration (WPA) was formed in 1935. The work programs of the New Jersey ERA were either discontinued or transferred to the New Jersey Division of the WPA. The National Youth Administration (NYA) was organized, and the Emergency Junior Colleges filed for funds to the NYA. Funds for ERA projects were depleted by

October 31, 1935. The NYA was able to provide funding which was effective November 1, 1935. However, all funds were discontinued for junior college programs by June 15, 1937. The Emergency Junior Colleges were either phased out, or they sought other alternatives to federal funding. They enjoyed some degree of success; especially when we realize the disadvantages under which they operated. The students who had graduated were generally successful in their transfer attempts; they enrolled in forty-two institutions located in eighteen different states and the District of Columbia. These emergency junior colleges had proved that county-based junior colleges were both feasible and desirable in New Jersey. The County College Act of New Jersey recognized the county structure as the desirable service boundary area in 1962 (26).

The educational benefits which were provided by the G.I. Bill of Rights after World War II provided quite a boost to the public two year college movement.

> War has always been lamented as a scourge of society. Yet as a result of war, mankind has leaped ahead in technological ways that undoubtedly would have been painfully slow or impossible in periods of peace. Take, for example, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, known to most as the GI Bill of Rights. Up to the 1970's, at least, this was the greatest single financial contribution to education ever made by the federal government. Unquestionably it did more to popularize higher education by opening doors hitherto blocked to most middle- and lower-class American citizens than any law of the land before or since.
>
> Most GI's of WW-II vintage were high-school graduates with little formal education beyond that point. Their return to civilian life by the tens of thousands coupled with their desire "to go to college" had a crushing effect on higher education . . . . (26:14)

In 1965 when the Elementary and Secondary and Higher Education Acts were passed, the public community college received little notice by the federal government. The Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963 authorized 22 percent of its facilities funds for public two-year colleges (16).

The United States has more recently committed itself to the concept that higher education should be accessible to all of the people. A proponent of this concept was former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Robert H. Finch (13). Early in his administration President Richard M. Nixon viewed the community colleges and technical institutes as avenues of great promise for the kind of education which would lead to good jobs and fill national shortage in critical skill areas (28:282-285). However, some educators expressed concern over the view of President Nixon that the community college should serve a career-training function almost exclusively (13). In March of 1971 Secretary Elliot Richardson addressed the American Association of Junior Colleges. Not only did he express the view that the community college was where "The action is in higher education," but he expressed the opinion that the public two-year college represented the major institutional innovation in higher education since World War II. The Commissioner of Education, Sidney P. Morland, established an Office for Community Colleges in the Bureau of Higher Education in an attempt to implement the support of President Nixon. The director was appointed in February, 1971 (28:282-285).

In 1970, 56 percent of available funds through the Higher Education Facilities Act were earmarked for community colleges and technical institutes. Seven million dollars were awarded to developing community colleges in 1970 through Title III of the Higher Education Act. That year also saw 52.9 percent of the funds available through Part E of the

Professions Development Act allocated to institutes and other training programs for two-year college personnel. A total of 86,000 junior-community college students received grants for College Work-Study in 1970 (28:284).

The National Advisory Council for Education Professions Development was charged, in the latter part of 1971, to review existing programs in both pre-service and in-service training of community college personnel, including administration, faculty, and student personnel workers. The major emphasis was identified to be the education of instructors for community colleges, with Dr. Terry O'Barrion being appointed as project director.

The fact that the community college has positively reacted to the demand for open access to higher education has undoubtedly provided a stimulus for the increased involvement of federal and state legislators. Cohen and Brawer (9:55-59) expressed the opinion that public officials can safely appropriate funds for the local two-year colleges by assuring taxpayers that their children, regardless of academic aptitude or previous school achievement, will have a convenient and accredited institution next door.

In all of higher education, the largest growth evidenced during the 1971-1972 academic year took place in the community colleges. Of the total expenditures for higher education during that year, $4.8 billion were predicted to come from the federal government according to the United States Office of Education. In 1972 Roger W. Heyns assumed office as President of the American Council of Education. His immediate concern was to increase federal support of higher education. At that time, education and manpower training received only 3.8 percent of the federal government's total budget. National defense, by comparison, took 43.3 percent, which is what much of the campus unrest has been about (1:10-15).

Public support of the community college has undoubtedly increased. The future, however, is not entirely clear. Citizens have expressed increased concern over spiraling taxes at all levels. This has created a financial pinch which has made it more difficult for federal, state, and local leaders to realize the goal of educational opportunity for all. However, a greater number of students have decided to initiate their post-secondary studies at the community college. The financial impact of these developments has been felt by both the public and private two-year colleges.

DEVELOPMENT TO DATE

The American Council on Education has provided data which clearly indicates that the two-year colleges have surged forward in terms of their representation among all types of institutions of higher education. In 1950-51 the two-year college represented 28 percent of the total number of institutions of higher education, with four-year colleges offering Bachelor's degrees representing 43 percent. In the Fall of 1970, 35 percent of all the institutions of higher education were of the two-year college type. Four-year colleges which offered the Bachelor's or first professional degrees represented 33 percent of the total population of institutions of higher education (4).

The two-year college movement has experienced rapid growth since its birth, and predictions have indicated that it will continue to grow. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (6) has recommended the establishment of between 230 and 280 community colleges by 1980. The challenge to the two-year college is to grow toward maturity; to develop a strategy which will eventually enable it to utilize its potentials effectively.

The behaviors which are presently required of the community college are similar to those required of the adolescent. The two-year college must evaluate both its image and degree of effectiveness in relation to its function as a unique institution. It is expected that the two-year college will emerge from adolescence with a positive self concept; with an identity which will promote its effectiveness and permit it to be concerned with contributing to the welfare of society.

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CHAPTER TWO

THE PHILOSOPHY AND FUNCTION OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The public two-year community college has come to be viewed as that segment of higher education committed to serving the diverse needs of our heterogeneous population. This belief or attitude has resulted in the coinage of such phrases as "democracy's college," the "people's college" and the "open door college." Depending on where they are located these two-year public colleges may be properly referred to as "junior colleges," "county colleges" or "community colleges." Not only has the terminology expanded in reference to our public two-year colleges; the functions or roles assigned to those institutions have burgeoned at an even greater pace.

The community colleges have attempted to offer programs and activities relevant to the needs of people of a range of social classes, ethnic groups and ages. Programs have been offered on campuses, in the communities through the use of facilities within extension centers, public schools, industrial complexes, hospitals, and prisons.

The community college has been viewed by many as an extension of the secondary school; as an opportunity for the people to develop new understandings, skills and abilities or to renew themselves socially, culturally, academically or vocationally through post-secondary offerings. In essence, the community college has been challenged to provide the opportunity for universal education; to promote the accessibility of higher education.

> The identity of the community college as a people's college is rooted in its attempt to provide greater opportunity for many more people to achieve a post high school education; including those who had previously been denied such an opportunity: the

poor, minorities and adults who missed their education the first time around (2:4).

The proliferation of the community college evidences the acceptance of the concept of "educational opportunity for all." The philosophy is consistent with the American dream. The worth of the individual has been recognized along with an awareness that education is the foundation for the enlarging of the individual's value to society. The community colleges have developed policies which have been interpreted as providing support for the goal of educational opportunity for all. The policy of open door admissions coupled with low cost tuition has made it possible for many to participate in the offerings of this comprehensive college.

Education has been traditionally considered to be the primary vehicle for the attainment of a higher level of social status. Education has provided opportunities to upgrade existing skills, or develop new skills or knowledges. The acquisition of a higher level of education has enabled individuals to seek employment of a higher level (11:7).

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The literature has indicated that community colleges should offer programs in support of the following functions: Occupational/Career, Parallel, Counseling/Guidance, Remedial/Developmental, Continuing Education, Community Service and General Education. The State of New Jersey has defined the community college as:

> . . . an educational institution established or to be established by one or more counties; offering programs of instruction; extending not more than two years beyond the high school, which may include but need not be limited to specialized or comprehensive curriculums, including college credit transfer courses, terminal courses in the liberal arts and sciences, and technical institute type programs. (N.J.S.A. 18A:64A-1)

It has been stated that three types of courses are offered by community colleges to support the effectiveness of programs; academic courses, courses of a technical or vocational nature, and developmental courses (1:7).

The community college has tried to offer something for everyone. Its function has increased geometrically. It seems that the implications of assuming new responsibilities should be examined. A college cannot expand its functions indefinitely, especially when we consider existing fiscal limitations. A major challenge of the 70's is to determine the future allocation of the resources of our community colleges (2:4-31). This challenge may well demand more than a reordering of priorities, it may in fact require the elimination of present offerings to permit the emergence of more relevant programs.

The challenge of reviewing and evaluating existing commitments of our community colleges is most complex; it is obvious to most educational theorists and planners that each function and program within our two-year colleges is burdened by ongoing philosophical internal debate concerned not only with the definition of terms, but with the appropriateness of the inclusion or exclusion of program components. The argument between the vocationalist, academician and educator regarding the "fit" of general education experiences within occupational programs has been long and tedious. If community colleges are concerned with the development of the "gestalt" of man, "then all educational programs must incorporate some degree of confrontation between students and the ideas men have produced and nurtured through the centuries" (4:49). In fact, it has been suggested that the higher the educational level of a nation's population, the better the chances for a democracy to function or exist (5:38).

Controversy presently exists in relation to the remedial/developmental function of the community college. One of the most pressing problems facing our colleges is the process of assignment of students to courses or activities within remedial programs. The dispute that centers around remedial/developmental programs is so basic that agreement or consistency regarding terminology has yet to be achieved. The terms remedial and developmental are frequently considered synonymous. However, "remedial" implies the remediation of deficiencies toward the goal of program entry, while the term "developmental" often refers to the development of skills or attitudes while not necessarily being concerned with future program eligibility (8:VIII).

The community colleges have been challenged to review their mission. Some of their services have begun to be duplicated by other types of institutions, e.g., occupational education and developmental education. It has been suggested that community colleges serve as a "broker" for the community (10:1-6). The community service function as a valid program within community colleges is more greatly emphasized when we consider that the President of the Carnegie Corporation of New York has suggested that community colleges "consider themselves primarily community service agencies rather than institutions of higher education (6:1).

In their attempt to provide a program of universal education for all the community colleges have developed processes and policies that have resulted in the recognition that they have accepted the responsibility to meet less traditional responsibilities. The literature has suggested that our public two-year colleges have embraced the opportunity to provide experiences to meet the needs resulting from their acceptance of a range of functions, e.g., the "reverse transfer" function, the "custodial" function, the second chance function, and the "moratorium" function. As an example, the "moratorium" function is analogous with the theory of Erikson which states that "adolence represents a socially authorized delay of adulthood . . ." That "the social institutions of various cultures provide status to such institutionalized moratoria as extended formal education, apprenticeship, military conscription, internship, etc." (7:61). The community college provides an opportunity for adolescents to develop a consistent set of values, attitudes, and behavior while being free of the cultural expectation of accepting adult level responsibilities.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Numerous interdependent variables have combined to exert pressures on our two-year colleges to progress toward the goal of developing programs and procedures designed to assist our citizens. The phenominal increment of accumulated knowledge and corresponding technological advancements have stimulated changes in the nature and complexity of career and adjustment requirements. Corresponding philosophical adjustments have negated the past elitist concept of higher education. Economic, technical and philosophical factors have prompted the emergence and acceptance of the attitude that each unskilled or uneducated person represents a waste of a human resource. Our complex technological society has advanced to the point that our social scientists and philosophers are hard pressed to develop those theories or tenets that are required to realize the highest level of effectiveness, or to influence the morality of the application resulting from those advancements.

Many unique characteristics have emerged within the community college movement in response to the proliferation of pressures resulting from our increasingly interdependent and complex society.

The comprehensive community college is typically a locally governed public two-year institution committed to the concept of accessibility as evidenced through its policies of low cost and open admissions. It usually serves a specific boundary area, with exceptions occurring when boundaries are crossed to enable those colleges to offer specific programs of a high cost per student. The community college student population is heterogeneous, representing a more reliable sampling of the community than any other institution of higher education. The community college not only serves a range of functions, it also attempts to respond to the needs of the youngest, but also to the needs of our geriatric population.

PLANNING

The need for efficient and effective master planning is emphasized when we review the complexities existing within our society generally and institutions of higher education specifically. Not only must each college develop its own internal master plan, but that plan must be responsive to, and consistent with the needs and goals of the community of colleges both regionally and state wide. It is imperative that colleges from both the public and private sectors work cooperatively toward the goal of serving the people. The obvious difficulty is arriving at a balance between the need to maintain individual institutional integrity and uniqueness while also acting in congruence with the needs and goals of the larger environment.

The issue of master planning at the state level is paramount. The master plan that evolves through the cooperative efforts of local, regional and state officials must provide for efficiency while promoting the effectiveness of all colleges. The plan must recognize not only the strengths of existing institutions, but also the varied nature and functions of the different types of colleges. The community colleges should not be considered the stepchild of the state colleges, nor should the state colleges be controlled through the self-serving machinations of a prestigious university. The master plan must recognize the values of a system of higher education which is supportive of colleges within both the public and private sectors. The master plan must not be so rigid in its theme of efficiency so as to smother the freedom of individual institutions as they attempt to develop meaningful programs based upon the recognition of the needs of the people, their unique traditions, and their faculty strengths. To build the self-concept of each college is to free it to work cooperatively with other institutions and agencies.

ISSUES

The proportion of the majority of state budgets going to higher education is predicted to be no greater in 1980 than it is now. Societal priorities are being reordered, with the position of higher education as a priority decending in rank order. New issues are rising to the surface with other types of institutions not only gearing up to meet those demands, but also attempting to provide programs which had been previously blanketed by our traditional colleges (3:1-3).

The community colleges must keep abreast of emerging needs, while at the same time they are required to determine the prognosis of each issue in terms of its "life span" within our society.

Our community colleges are faced with an even greater challenge than dealing with their typical fiscal, political and programmatic concerns. They must identify the cultural, career, and educational needs of our society; develop valid structures, experiences, and programs relevant to those needs; and interpret those to society at a level sufficient to motivate the people to participate. Our community colleges are challenged to demonstrate leadership; to more clearly define their "raison d'etre."

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CHAPTER THREE

THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENT

The community college serves a more heterogeneous student clientele than does any other type of institution of higher education. This two-year college is an extremely complex institution in that the policy of "open door" admissions has both supported and prompted an environment whereby students of a wide range of abilities and needs are faced with a plethora of program opportunities. The community college claims to be interested primarily in the quality of teaching afforded to each student. To teach effectively in the community college requires an understanding of the nature of the community college student.

The literature has suggested that the community college student is less academically able than those students admitted to the lower division of a four-year college or university. The community college student is unsure in terms of career and academic goals, insecure in terms of his self-perception of academic ability, and in need of counseling services. The community college student is generally older than his counterpart in four-year colleges, and has typically experienced less academic success in previous studies. The population of community college students represents a more reliable sampling of the total population of the community within which they live. The community college in terms of the variables of student race, ethnic background, socioeconomic level, levels of motivation, age, prior academic achievement, academic aptitude, and occupational or academic goals seems to be the "melting pot" of higher education.

Many community college students represent a socioeconomic level that is significantly lower than that represented by the traditional four-year college or university student. The implications of that condition are enormous when we realize that socioeconomic variables not only affect whether or not a student will attend college, but also affect where he attends, and the degree of support he receives from his family to persist and achieve.

Students who transfer from two-year colleges to the upper division of four-year colleges generally compete successfully with the native students of that receiving institution. Those transfer students frequently experience a drop in grade point average during the first semester after transfer (transfer shock); they then tend to increase their level of achievement to the point that they are able to attain at a level comparable to their achievement immediately prior to transfer. Local variations have been noted; frequently resulting from programmatic, curricular, institutional or personal variables. Smith found that transfer students in professional education programs at Glassboro State College achieved as well as the native students during the first semester of upper division studies. The achievement of these transfer students increased during the second semester of study, but not as greatly as that increment of achievement experienced by the native students (11:71-72).

The number of minority students that have entered our colleges during this last decade has steadily increased. The urban community colleges have been particularly challenged to respond to their needs. Each aspect of the college community must plan individually and unilaterally in their attempt to provide effective programs and services. The total institution must develop and maintain an image of quality and status, or else minority members will develop a perception that they have not truly been admitted into the mainstream of higher education. The implications of the latter statement imply a particularly complex task; to develop programs of quality and status while not developing policies and requirements that are so restrictive and arbitrary so as to negate the probability of achievement for minority students. To be specific, if students view career programs as being that of lower status, they will view those programs as part of a deliberate attempt to relegate them for life to a lower class position. If elective or general education experiences are highly traditional in terms of topics, goals, activities and grading procedures; with a minimum of adaptation resulting from the recognition of student and program differences; it is probable that students matriculated in nontraditional programs may be forced to withdraw as a result of the burden imposed through unrealistic and irrelevant demands.

Colleges have primarily geared up to provide programs for the full-time student. The most recent literature clearly indicates a significant growth in the number of part-time students. These students stand apart from full-time students in terms of goals and their self-perception of their calendar for completion. Our public two-year colleges must realize that multiple entrance and exit opportunities must be provided to these part-time students since rather than being "drop outs," they may have achieved a specific goal and may at a later time return to achieve another objective (2:9).

The 1972-1973 enrollments indicated a 14.7 percent part-time increase of female enrollments and a 8.4 percent part-time male enrollment increase within our publically controlled two-year institutions (8:10). It is imperative that we become aware of the growing interest of our adult population in continuing their education in an attempt to keep abreast of the requirements of our increasingly complex society (2:15). We must assure that our community colleges assist people in adapting to changing cultural, occupational and technological expectations.

Glenister (5:8-9) compared the theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious values of two-year college students with those of four-year students. The two-year college males and females were more interested in the practical aspects of learning and less concerned with the theoretical. The two-year college females indicated a significantly lower aesthetic value than their four-year college counterparts. It is possible that the small town backgrounds of the two-year students of both sexes affected the finding that they indicated their acceptance of their social values at a significantly higher level than the four-year students. The two-year college females scored significantly higher on the measure of political value while the four-year college females indicated a significantly higher religious value than did the two-year college females. The research concerned with these values that have been internalized by community college students remain incomplete. Much will be gained if we can become aware of the values and aspirations of the students in our community colleges.

Community colleges are increasingly conducting research in an effort to inform instructors and administrators of the nature and needs of their students at the local level. A class profile report released through the Office of Testing and Evaluation of Burlington County College, New Jersey, (10:1-8) indicated that their freshman class scored lower when compared with state and national mean ACT scores. Those students also achieved lower mean scores of high school achievement when compared with state and national norms. When the educational major plans of these students were analyzed, it was indicated that business and commerce studies were most popular while majors related to education represented the second highest percentage of choice of major. None of those students planned to major in mathematics or foreign languages. Major programs related to agriculture, forestry, architecture and communications were each desired by two percent of the members of that class. One percent of the class indicated that they planned to major in studies related to home economics, humanities; physical science and trade/industry/technologies respectively. The profile compared the first year grade point average predictions of the students with the predictions indicated by ACT data. Thirty-one percent of the students predicted that they would attain a first year GPA of 3.0 or above, while the ACT data indicated that only one percent of that class would achieve at that level. Fifty-seven percent of those students expected to work while in college, with thirty-nine percent of the class expecting to apply for financial aid.

An increasing number of students are entering the community college with deficiencies frequently resulting in a low level of achievement. Roueche (9:12-13) has implied that low achieving community college students may have suffered from one or more of the following conditions: a low level of previous achievement; deficiencies in basic skills, i.e., language and mathematics; the lack of supportive study habits; a low level of maturation, frequently lacking home encouragement; unrealistic or poorly defined goals; and being representative of homes with minimal standards and cultural advantages. He stated that those students expect remedial courses to help them eliminate deficiencies so that they can eventually pursue their desired educational program. "Research on these students leads to the conclusion that either remedial students have unrealistic educational goals or that the programs in the community junior college are failing to remedy their educational deficiencies" (Ibid, 14).

It has been previously stressed that community college students value the practical more than the abstract, and that the support a student receives from his family affects his attendance and persistence in college. Weigel (12:9) compared persisting students with non-persisters at Anoka-Ramsey State Junior College in Minnesota. He found that two questions significantly distinguished the persisters from the non-persisters. The persisters attended junior college to prepare themselves for a better paying job, and viewed the encouragement of people outside of school as being of more importance than did the non-persisters.

When considering the differences between the faculty and students of two and four-year colleges, Fallows (4:52) felt that "the primary difference can be summed up as one of credentials." Fallows considered such student variables or academic expectations, achievement, goal clarification, family encouragement and freedom to participate in discussion as they affect teaching in community and four-year colleges. She expressed the attitude that her four-year college students, resulting from greater self-confidence and a wider range of social experiences, were more free to laugh and enjoy humor in the classroom; "because these students (four-year college) are more self-confident, they are able to respond to humor. One must first grasp an idea before he can relax enough to have fun with it - to find it absurd or self-contradictory" (Ibid, 53).

The community college is a complex institution; it has appealed to a heterogeneous, complex sampling of our population. These colleges play an important role in guiding people and affecting occupational choice. The sixties will be long remembered as a time of student rebellion; a time when students demanded to be heard, demanded that they be offered the opportunity to communicate their attitudes, needs and beliefs to administrators and faculty. Educational Testing Service (ETS) has developed an instrument labeled Student Reactions to College (SRC) for recording the views of two-year college students toward their colleges. The SRC was field tested in the Spring of 1974 within twenty-five publicly supported colleges. Most of the students felt that their instructors geared their material to students' interests and abilities, and that they explained things clearly. More than sixty percent were interested in receiving credit by examination for independent study. On the other hand, nearly fifty-nine percent felt the instructor sometimes gave out "busy work," while forty-four percent had been in classes that repeated material which they already knew. It is important that we keep our fingers on the pulse of the three million students in our nearly 1200 two-year colleges (3:1-6). We must recognize that the objective of surveying students is not that of control, but an extension of our commitment to meeting the needs of students.

The community college movement is faced with a myriad of issues; decreased birth rate, the need to evaluate and redefine its mission, increased fiscal limitations, and predictions of declining enrollments. It could be stated that our two-year college must identify new programs to appeal to new students before they can really succeed in understanding their traditional "nontraditional" student. It has been estimated that by 1991 the number of college age youth will be the same as it was in 1965 and 1966 (6:2). Knoell has recognized (7:5) that other agencies and institutions are serving functions which our community colleges had viewed as within their realm of responsibility. Occupational programs are being offered by vocational and technical schools, while four-year colleges are increasingly accepting the nontraditional student. It is no longer enough to be accessible, open door, free, and comprehensive. The community colleges must go out into their service areas to survey their potential clienteles, while continuing to assess their impact on enrolled students.

Brawer (1:32) has presented a case for the application of the "Thirteenth year" concept within the community college; one of the assumptions being the relevance of Erikson's concept of moratorium to our two-year colleges. This "thirteenth year" would stress the concept of Functional Potential; "the degree to which a person is able to tolerate ambiguity, delay gratification, exhibit adaptive flexibility, demonstrate goal directedness, relate to self and others and have a clear sense of personal identity." This approach or concept is offered as a means to afford students the opportunity to explore and find themselves while being unpressured. Brawer senses that institutional specialization may be required: an institution committed to technical/occupational programs; an institution emphasizing the transfer function; a third type of community college built around the "thirteenth year" concept.

The keystone of success for the community college in the future is the development, organization, and effectiveness of a meaningful program of Student Personnel Services. Those programs and services that are provided within or in cooperation with a student personnel division are: orientation, admissions, developmental services, counseling and advising, student organizations and activities, regulations, registration, student evaluation and interpretation, placement, record keeping, articulation, follow-up evaluation, financial assistance, tutoring, and health services. The publication of these services and programs is critical. The student personnel divisions of community colleges are being challenged to coordinate and extend these services throughout both the institution and the community served by their colleges. The growth of our students, communities and colleges is greatly dependent upon the foresight and adaptability of our student personnel programs. The notion that student personnel programs are apart from curricular and community considerations is outdated and erroneous. An effective community college is one that recognizes the critical and all-encompassing role of student personnel services.

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CHAPTER FOUR

COMPREHENSIVE FACULTY/COMPREHENSIVE COLLEGES

An understanding and knowledge of the faculty is a prerequisite for institutional evaluation and planning. As an institution develops, so must its faculty. Our community colleges are required to react to pressures from many segments of our society. Some of those pressures being exerted on our two-year colleges may have been generated from sources and philosophies that are of long-term validity; while others may be the result of short lived fads, resulting from either an overreaction to immediate needs or societal conditions. Faculties may or may not be cognitively aware of many of those interrelated pressures that have demanded the increased time and energies of institutional leaders; they are, however, subject to changed expectations resulting from those pressures. As an example, Brawer (3:41) has noted a shift in the interpretation of the terms "accountability" and "development" as they apply to our community colleges. Faculty members are being held accountable for student achievement, within the context that our community colleges must be concerned with the development of all constituencies beyond the point of chronological adulthood.

The Junior College Research Review of September, 1969 (5:1) indicated that Kennedy (ED 027 894) stated that certain policies and procedures should be formulated before the active recruitment of faculty members for community colleges is initiated. Those policies and procedures identified were the: development of a job description; continuous search over a broad geographic area; establishment of criteria such as personal characteristics and staff balance; systematic selection procedure, involving a variety of appraisal techniques; participation of college constituencies in the selection process; assignment of staff on the basis of the requirements of the available position; promotion or appointment of persons within or without the system to higher positions. Wattenbarger (ED 014 283) reported that 33 percent of junior college faculty came from secondary schools. Twenty to twenty-three percent came from graduate schools, 17 percent from other colleges and universities, and 11 percent from business occupations. It seems that individuals are increasingly looking toward community colleges for second career opportunities on both a full-time and adjunct basis.

The community college has been considered to be a unique institution. It seems logical to minimally expect that the faculties of our community colleges be aware of the philosophy of that institution and the nature of its students. In fact, a statewide study conducted in California resulted in the recommendation that "aside from broad experience and knowledge about his subject, the junior college English teacher should be knowledgeable about the junior college and the junior college student" (ED 011 189). The National Advisory Council of Education Professions Development 1972 report entitled "People for the People's College" listed as essential the following qualities for any preservice program in junior college teaching: (1) an understanding of the history and a commitment to the two-year college philosophy; (2) an understanding and acceptance of the students attending the two-year college; (3) an internship experience for those who want to work in a community junior college, and (4) the development of the teacher's humanistic personality (1:1-3). Interest and concern related to the preparation of community college teachers is evidenced by the (1974) publication of a brief prepared for the Graduate Education-Community/ Junior College Conference sponsored by the National Board on Graduate Education under a grant from the Lilly Endowment Fund. It is of interest to recognize that while the availability of persons possessing the Ph.D. degree has increased significantly, no significant increase in the hiring of Ph.D.'s by community colleges has been noted.

The typical community college faculty member holds a master's degree obtained from a four-year college. He is typically middle class, and has not studied the community college specifically. He is 31 to 50 years of age, and has previously been employed in the public schools, or in business and industry (8:55).

It seems that the heterogeneous student population of the community colleges is served by a heterogeneous faculty. The majority of community college professors have had previous teaching experience in the public schools. The typical review of the characteristics of community college professors seems to be surface in nature, since "seldom are attributes discussed that refer directly to classroom behavior" (6:2). This amplifies the need to review faculty characteristics in light of their affect on teaching, which is, the primary function of the two-year college professor.

Brawer (3:20-30) reports the results of research that compared subjects drawn from the faculties of three two-year colleges. Each college respectively was drawn from either an urban, suburban, or rural setting. It was concluded that those differences that did occur tended to be limited. It was concluded that "the faculty is similar on most demographic items no matter how accurate, sketchy, or superficial . . ."

they may have been. It was also inferred that those differences that existed in the cognitive, connotative and affective areas were specifically related to the individuals and did not distinguish the faculty from one college from the faculties in the other two colleges.

Kelley and Wilbur attempted to determine what faculty liked best about teaching in the community junior college. The ten most frequent responses were: academic and personal freedom; emphasis upon teaching; challenge of students; close relationships with students; close relationships with faculty; higher level of students; responsive administration; feeling of service; work conditions; and the junior college philosophy and characteristics. Those aspects that were liked least by the faculty members were: inadequate working loads, compensations and aids; too much diversity and poor quality of students; loss of students - limitations of two-year college; poor status, prestige, and influence of the junior college; administrative faults; lack of subject matter challenges; improper emphasis in curriculum; creeping high school philosophy; lack of quality among faculty; and junior colleges - new and innovative (7:191-195).

The community college movement has been characterized by the consistent claim that our public two-year colleges are primarily concerned with the quality of instruction. The term innovation has often been applied to the community college in an attempt to emphasize its commitment to seeking new and better ways to promote learning. It is interesting, and somewhat conflicting to recognize that Park (9:26-27) found that many of the faculty subjects that participated in his survey indicated they preferred a traditional approach to teaching. Only a few indicated a willingness to depart from previously developed teaching methodologies. More than half of the subjects favored the lecture method, with textbooks and written materials being the most frequently selected choice of instructional media.

The difficulty in changing any behavior is obvious; we must recognize that any change that is encouraged in terms of teaching style must be consistent with the personality of the individual. That uniqueness of personality must also be recognized when we observe and evaluate the performance of each professor.

As mentioned earlier, one of the major changes which has affected the faculties of our community college is the demand for accountability; the professor is increasingly being held responsible for student learning, they are expected to promote and create learning. The public is demanding its "monies worth;" requiring that they be shown that our schools and colleges are creating an increment of learning. Faculty evaluation has received increased attention these last six years. Many professors have welcomed this challenge with open arms since their behavior has continually demonstrated their commitment to the assumption that evaluation is an integral part of the instructional process. California requires the evaluation of its two-year college faculties through the Teacher Evaluation Act. New Jersey requires a formal program of evaluation through both State Board of Higher Education Regulation and the Guidelines for County Colleges under the Laws of 1973 (A-328). Professors have been evaluated for a multiplicity of reasons: for recontracting and tenuring purposes; for merit pay and promotion; to provide evidence of faculty effectiveness; and to upgrade the quality of instruction. It seems that the improvement of the effectiveness of a community college can be served by a system of evaluation that frees a professor or any member of the professional staff to more effectively utilize his skills and potentials; in other words to assist him in becoming self-actualizing. Any system or program of evaluation that ignores that function of evaluation will eventually result in an unforgivable waste of the "human resources" of that institution. Faculty evaluation procedures should promote the growth of the professional; they should assist him in becoming an active, non-dependent, and contributing member of the college community. The evaluation process should clearly support a basic management principle; a clear and visible relationship must exist between the quality of performance and the system of reinforcement. The evaluation process should provide information to the professional that will enable him to identify professional goals and design a program toward improvement uniquely suited to his personality, role, and needs.

Each professor is typically required to teach effectively, provide service to both the college and community, and evidence achievement within the sphere of his academic and professional environment. Not only are we challenged to develop valid and reliable criteria related to those expectations; we are also challenged to establish a system of evaluative priorities that are consistent with the goals of the institution.

The scope of participation in the evaluation process has widened. Not only should peers and administrators be involved, but it is increasingly accepted that both the students and professor being evaluated be meaningfully involved as contributors and decision makers. Evaluation as a process designed to stimulate growth is meaningless, unless those directly involved are granted the opportunity and challenge to review, analyze and evaluate their behavior. We must analyze the degree and scope of involvement of each constituency in the evaluation process. We must respond to the question of whether each constituency can speak with equal validity to all of the criteria included within the evaluation process, or should we consider that each group within the college community may contribute and react with a high degree of validity to selected components of that process while not possessing the required skills or experiences to provide meaningful input when considering all evaluative criteria.

O'Banion (8:63) has predicted that community colleges may, in the forseeable future, employ 78,889-118,000 more staff than in 1971. He expressed the desire that those professors demonstrate the attributes of the "good teacher" of 1971. He identified those as "communication-orientation to the study of subject matter, flexibility, 'feeling', a high regard for students and their total development . . . ." The ability to both prepare and identify such professionals requires that we be willing to shed our protective mechanisms, and work cooperatively in analyzing present conditions with an eye toward the goal of developing increasingly effective preparation, selection, evaluation and developmental programs. An underlying challenge is that all changes must be in concert with the requirement that our community colleges review, interpret and clarify their role in our changing society.

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CHAPTER FIVE

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

A competent cartoonist could readily publish an illustration depicting concerned faculty and administrators clothed in cavalry uniform being surrounded by students, taxpayers and legislatures armed with well-stocked quivers containing arrows labeled to represent the many challenges that have been increasingly directed toward the higher education community. We cannot allow ourselves to panic, but we must not view the campus as an insulator that can ward off those highly charged issues that have probed our "defenses." We should learn from the Custer dilemma; we should listen, evaluate, plan and develop our resources (troops if you will) to the degree that they can function at the highest level of efficiency and effectiveness.

The Custer analogy seems to be more appropriate when we consider that like Custer, our mobility is limited. Fewer new positions for faculty are available, and faculty cannot look to other campuses for employment as readily as in the past. Formerly we were freer to hire new faculty with specific skills to react to or develop programs that required specific professional or academic expertise. As Rose and Gaff (5:2) have pointed out, ". . . new blood in the form of new faculty is not necessarily the primary source of instructional improvement and institutional renewal." In fact, they expressed the opinion that academic mobility may have presented an obstacle to effective staff development programs in our colleges during the last two decades.

Fiscal exigencies such as increased taxes, high unemployment and double-digit inflation have prompted an increasing number of taxpayers and legislatures to demand a greater level of "accountability" from our professors and institutions. Not only must each college or university attain a higher level of efficiency and effectiveness, but each staff member must also be increasingly effective in the attainment of those goals resulting from his "fit" or role within the institution.

State and federal governments, as well as individual institutions, foundations and corporations, have begun to recognize the importance of the emergence of valid staff development and evaluation programs as a viable response to the pressures being exerted on our colleges from both internal and external sources. A problem exists regarding this recognition and it is that "due to previous experience, many faculty look upon in-service education in much the same way as some people view their in-laws - - something to be endured" (1:3). Many reasons have been expressed as rationale for the existence of faculty development programs e.g.; that professors are rigorously prepared as scholars or researchers, but have not received comparable levels of preparation and training to fulfill their teaching responsibilities; they have assumed that "the art and skill of teaching comes naturally" (2:5); that a need exists for constant improvement in terms of teaching efficiency and effectiveness (1:5); that many states have legislated that colleges conduct faculty development and evaluation programs; that "much as an architect is licensed to begin practice, a new faculty member is prepared only to begin to teach" (1:4); that not only is the nature of higher education changing, but changing technology requires that staff be kept abreast of developments to enable them to perceive of additional instructional options and strategies; and that the term "profession" implies a standard of service that can only be maintained through the continual renewal and upgrading of professional skills and knowledge.

The primary function of faculty is to teach and support a high level of instructional effectiveness. Myre (3:1) has stated that ". . . the ultimate goal of any efforts falling under the general rubric of faculty development is the improvement of instruction and the learning process."

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS AND RESOURCES

Individual states and institutions have sought to develop appropriate strategies to meet their unique faculty developmental needs. The University of Florida at Gainesville has established an Office of Instructional Resources (OIR) which plans and sponsors varied activities designed to improve instructional effectiveness. The OIR publishes a Newsletter which not only announces those programs and services available to the faculty, but also reports the results of research related to the university community. The OIR offers a Computer Managed Course designed to aid college professors in developing programmed instructional materials for their courses. In addition, a Mini-Sabbatical Program to support projects by faculty for instructional improvement and Audio Visual Services and Workshops to assist faculty in utilizing their service more effectively are sponsored by the OIR. During the Fall of 1974 the OIR conducted a Teaching Assistance Program consisting of seven seminars and one workshop. It has been reported that the Florida State Legislature has allocated special funds for staff development programs in all of the Florida Community Colleges (4:104).

The University of Massachusetts has developed a Clinic to Improve University Teaching which received funding from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation in 1972. The Clinic has been structured to:

1. Conduct research to refine the teaching improvement process, instruments, and procedures,
2. Provide services to University of Massachusetts' faculty who wished to participate in the Clinic's teaching improvement process and
3. Extend its process, materials and procedures to other colleges and universities. (2:11)

Salem Community College, New Jersey, has developed and initiated a staff development program for its faculty in consortium with Glassboro State College. Appropriate experiences and courses with graduate credit are being offered to the faculty of Salem Community College on their campus, with faculty also being offered the option to participate, with tuition paid, in additional graduate courses at Glassboro. The Coordinator of the M.A. Program in Junior College Teaching at Glassboro is coordinating the program with the Academic Dean of Salem Community College.

Ocean County College, Toms River, New Jersey, has appointed an Educational Development Officer who is responsible for the planning and coordination of developmental activities for their faculty. A Center for Research on Learning and Teaching has been organized and is functioning at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. The Center for Professional Development has been created in the California State University and College System to enable institutions of higher education which exist within large multi-campus state systems to "develop systematic ways to improve the instruction of students and to stimulate and encourage the continuous renewal of faculty" (5:2). This center has been supported through the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education.

Professional organizations, colleges and universities, and private profit and non-profit corporations have sponsored seminars, workshops and conferences designed not only to improve instructional effectiveness, but to promote the concept of staff development and evaluation programs. The American Association of Higher Education sponsored a series of seminars on Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education in Kansas City, Washington, D.C., Fort Worth, New York, Atlanta, Seattle, Boston, San Francisco, Chicago, and Long Beach, California. An International Conference on Improving University Teaching was co-sponsored by the University of Massachusetts at Amherst and U.N.E.S.C.O. during the Fall of 1974.

Many corporations and organizations are continuing to sponsor seminars, workshops and conferences dealing with topics directly related to and concerned with the improvement of instruction in Higher Education. Among these are Educational Testing Service of Princeton, The Center for Personalized Instruction of Washington, D.C., Instructional Industries, Inc., The Evaluation and Training Institute of Los Angeles, California, and The Consortium of Community Colleges Incorporated of New Jersey.

Audio visual materials and textbooks have recently been published to serve as resources for those concerned with faculty development programs. A Faculty Evaluation and Development Series of audio and video cassettes has been made available as a result of the recording of the key presentations during that conference which was jointly sponsored by the American Association of Higher Education and Kansas State University in 1974. Publications such as Teaching Tips by

McKeachie and Instructional Development for Individualizing Learning in Higher Education by Diamond, et. al., are examples of references available to those concerned with faculty development activities.

PLANNING FOR FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

Hammons and Wallace (1:2) expressed the hope that the "consideration of the following questions and issues prior to initiating a program will significantly improve the results achieved by that (faculty development) program."

1. What answer can be given to staff who ask, "Why do we need a staff development program?"
2. Who will be responsible for doing the planning?
3. How will specific staff development needs be identified?
4. What is the balance between institutional priorities and individual needs?
5. Which staff should participate?
6. How flexible will the program be?
7. How can staff be motivated to participate?
8. How should the program be scheduled?
9. Who will conduct the program?
10. What instructional technique(s) work(s) best?
11. What publicity should be made of the program and how should the program be disseminated?
12. Should the program be evaluated, and if so, how?
13. How should the program be funded and what other kinds of support, besides funding, are needed?

It should be emphasized that a successful program requires a broad base of support. I submit that the structure for planning, organizing and conducting a faculty development program must "fit" within the system of institutional governance. A valid program should also be interrelated with the existing curricula and instructional practices within an institution. Failure to recognize the importance of these two conditions would be foolhardy, since not only would a state of "aggravated conflict" be promoted, but a monumental waste of resources would also result. We should respond to the following questions before initiating a program for faculty development:

1. What relationship will or should exist between the program and promotion, recontracting and tenuring procedures?
2. Is the program compatible with the negotiated contract?
3. What relationship should exist between the program and faculty representative organizations?
4. How can developmental resources and facilities be incorporated into the existing instructional program?

ACTIVITIES AND SUPPORT SERVICES

Faculty Development programs vary in terms of both structure and scope of activities. The following list of activities is not all-inclusive, but does present those activities most frequently mentioned in the literature:

Institutes - Summer and Year Long
Sabbaticals
Mini-Sabbaticals
Orientation Programs

Newsletters - Publications - Reviews of Educational Research
Recognition of Teaching Excellence
Graduate Tuition Payment
Courses on Site with credit
Workshops
Colloquium
Staff Retreats
Recontracting, Tenure and Promotion Policies and Procedures
Encounter Groups
Seminars
Conventions
Professional Days
Observation of Master Teaching
Packaged Programs
Leaves of Absence
Staffing Policies and Procedures

When initiating a Faculty Development Program, it must be recognized that the process of initiation must be planned and structured in such a way as to engender a sense of support within the faculty. All constituencies within the college community should be represented during all phases of planning, development, initiation, maintenance and evaluation. It seems logical that a continuous program requires the consistent and full time supervision of a skilled professional. The Educational Development Specialist (EDS) must have a coordinated package of support services, systems and facilities available to ensure maximum program effectiveness. Professionals skilled in instructional technology, resources, research and graphics must be directly involved and committed to the success of the program. The EDS must also efficiently utilize the skills and services of the Learning Resource Center, Computer Center, Audio Visual Center, Grant Development Department, Public Relations Department and Printing and Reproduction services.

Above all, the EDS must identify and implement a process that will enable him to recognize those available human resources from within his institution. Any college or university consists of a faculty of highly skilled and motivated professionals. Those individual resources coupled with organized internal and external services can eventually produce a program of benefit to the total college community.

Consistency is critical. Any college or university that espouses the value of a total institutional commitment to faculty development must involve all constituencies to the fullest extent. The program must clearly evidence concern for increased effectiveness at all levels; institutional, divisional, departmental and individual. This requires that judgment be used, while at the same time priorities must be established. Management theory would also require that the program incorporate a system whereby the faculty can perceive of a relationship between behavior and reinforcement.

Three major barriers exist in most institutions; any one of which could throw the proverbial monkev wrench into the cogs of the machinery. The initiating committee is challenged to develop a process and program capable of surmounting the obstacles of attitude, fiscal exigency and the internal resource limitations of their institution. Any of these or other considerations could directly affect the decision as to whether the program would be best implemented and conducted in whole or in part on an institutional, regional or state-wide level.

In a sense the bugle has been sounded. Rather than initiating faculty development programs from a defensive perspective, we should utilize all of our forces to enable us to initiate a long-term continual offensive against instructional mediocrity.

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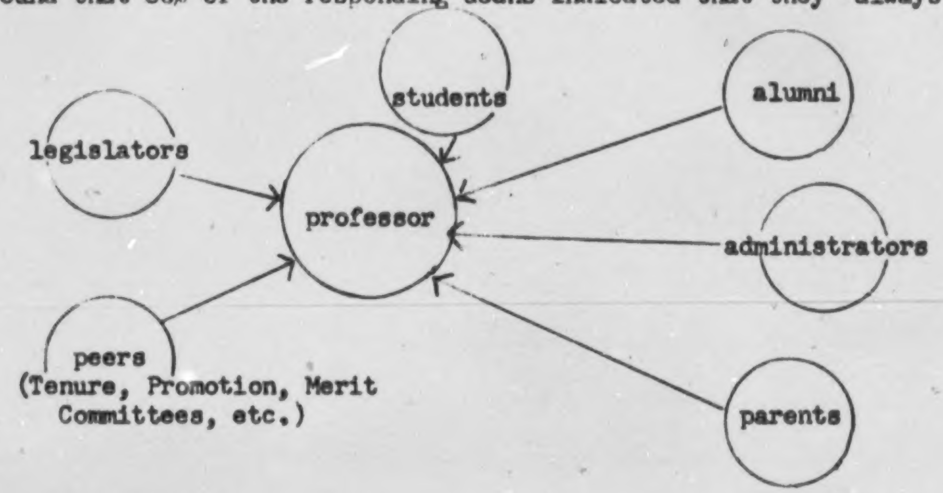
CHAPTER SIX

FACULTY EVALUATION WHO - WHY - HOW?

THE WHO AND WHY

Informal evaluation of instruction is not a new phenomena, given the critical nature of man (generic man, that is) one could assume that the children of those who lived in caves were critical of their elders. The great universities of the "Student Prince" era were dominated and controlled by the students, hence professors who were persona-non-grata were not retained. This century has witnessed professor power learning to accommodate student power; the 1960's saw the rise of student power and consequently the demand for formal professorial accountability. The 1970's have seen the reassertion of legislative control over higher education through both the demands for professorial accountability and reduced commitment in terms of inflated dollars. This can best be seen in the struggles between individual campuses of higher education on the one hand and state departments of education and legislatures on the other. States such as California, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey have passed acts that require professional accountability and/or faculty development. It should be noted that faculty development programs are the most logical and defensible extensions of faculty evaluation.

If the individual faculty member feels that he/she is being put upon by many forces, the faculty member is quite right. Figure 1 illustrates the sundry forces that are demanding, and in many cases are active participants in faculty evaluation. These forces have been relatively successful in instituting formal evaluations of faculty.


students
alumni
legislators
professor
administrators
peers
(Tenure, Promotion, Merit
Committees, etc.)
parents

Pressure Groups That Exert Force
for Faculty Evaluation

Figure 1

In a study of 410 academic deans of liberal arts colleges, Seldin (34) found that 60% of the responding deans indicated that they "always" or "usually" used systematic student ratings. Bejar (2:79-83) also found that the majority (68%) of institutions who replied to his questionnaire had a student rating program. The comparison of the results from The Bejar Study and those of Mueller (published in 1951) and Bryan (published in 1968), indicates that the frequency of gathering evaluation by students has increased from 35% to 68% (2:83); thus students have become a major source in the evaluation of faculty for tenure, promotion, and merit decisions. One may argue that students because of their immaturity, lack of understanding of the upward mobility within the academic arena, and their capriciousness should not be evaluating professors. Yet no matter how cogent such arguments appear, the fact that students are, in essence, the immediate consumer, tends to make such positions rather moot. Costen, Greenough, and Menges in an extensive review of the literature concluded that students "can rate instruction with a reasonable degree of reliability" (8:513). In the summary and conclusions stemming from their review, they state:

> A review of empirical studies indicates that students' ratings can provide reliable and valid information on the quality of courses and instruction. Such information can be of use to academic departments in constructing normative data for the evaluation of teaching and may aid the individual instructor in improving his teaching effectiveness. (8:530)

Lest one assume that student evaluation be restricted to the traditional classroom lectures, it should be noted that Rugg and Norris (1975) found that it may be a misconception for faculty to view their role in individualized, non-classroom, learning situations as requiring little of their time, effort, or personal guidance because of not being in a lecture mode. The results of their study on faculty supervision in a research-oriented learning experience (graduate psychology seminar) indicate that a single emphasis on evaluation neglected other important aspects of a situation which effect the students' evaluation of the learning experience (e.g. supervisory functions and relationships). They have raised the spector that elements, other than the traditional lecture components (tests, quality of voice, etc.), can and do play a role in student evaluations.

Bess suggests that faculty and student life cycles interact with each other, and that under proper conditions teaching, rather than research, may yield profound satisfaction. In addition, student needs (to be satisfied for emotional and interpersonal growth and self-knowledge) are not being met by colleges and universities; consequently, both groups are not having needs met. He develops an interesting model that could possibly bring about the integrating of faculty and student life cycles. What is of considerable interest to those involved in faculty evaluation is the recognition of the interrelationships of student developmental needs, faculty psychological dispositions varying with age, student psychological dispositions varying over four years, and faculty development (5:379-381). The recognition that faculty do indeed receive rewards from teaching is crucial, and that one could assume that such rewards would be enhanced through the knowledge of consumer satisfaction. Such knowledge can be conveyed through faculty evaluation by students.

Should student evaluation of faculty be the sole indicator of faculty effectiveness? It would seem that such a question need not be asked, yet this writer has seen in several institutions the use of student evaluations, if not the sole indicator, the majority indicator for faculty effectiveness. (That is, student evaluations comprise the major portion of variance in faculty evaluation). Sagen (32) suggests that several measures (department chairmen, students, self-evaluation, peer) be used to determine effectiveness, and that consistency of response be employed. Kapel (1974) makes the point that student evaluation of faculty should be a part of a highly developed, well designed and structured evaluation system. Such a position recognizes the fact that student ratings of college instruction have limitations (19:53-61); Hildebrand, Wilson and Dienst, (20:43); Costen, Greenough, and Menges, (8:531). Yet the information supplied by students cannot be duplicated from other sources. The following gives an excellent argument for student evaluation:

> In comparison with other possibilities, carefully gathered student opinion ranks high as a source of data. The reasons are practical as well as theoretical. We need input that can be fairly easily gathered and that can be accepted and even respected by faculty members. It is also useful to have data which have some degree of cross-comparability and which can be made visible to the university community. Theoretical considerations suggest the need for firsthand input from sources close to, if not right at, the point of learning. Student evaluation meets all these specifications and in addition rests on a substantial basis of careful investigations and refinement of instruments and techniques (10:64).

If the reader were to refer to Figure 1, it can be seen that pressure groups other than students have exerted force for faculty evaluation. Legislators have passed laws to request better faculty reporting of course loads, student contact hours, and credit generation. These may be considered faculty evaluation utilizing different criteria than performance in the classroom. It could also be considered evaluation through unobtrusive measures -- factors that can be effected by poor teaching or poor programs.

Peer evaluation is required in many colleges and universities, but this is wrought with complications. Politics aside, it would be possible for "the blind to lead the blind" in some situations. An institution that trains and structures objective peer evaluation, with a prior criteria, can maximize the potential for such formal evaluation (informal is readily available anytime it is requested). An institution should be warned that peer evaluation, if done improperly, can destroy a department, and many resultant wounds may never heal.

Administrative evaluation suffers from similar problems to those of peer evaluation. The one major consideration is the fact that many organizational structures require those above to evaluate those below.

Thus department chairmen might be "expected" to evaluate; however, if done incorrectly the results may be devastating.

Parental evaluation of professors can be reflected in support given their children, gift giving to the institution, and formal complaints through their children or directly to the President of the institution. Nonetheless, the parents have also demanded accountability, this demand may have been filtered through the state legislature, or it may be reflected in more subtle attitude changes.

Professors should not forget that the parents directly support a major part of the instructional program through tuition and/or taxes. It appears to this writer that they have a legitimate right to demand accountability from professors and colleges. How defined is yet another problem.

Alumni evaluation is similar to student evaluation except in retrospect. Since they are further removed from the professor, their effect is less pronounced. However, they can be quite influential, almost in the same terms as parents. The focal point around which faculty evaluation revolves appears to be students' perception of faculty effectiveness; at least in terms of faculty evaluation in the mid-1970's. This has not reduced the influence of peer decision making in the evaluation process. What it has done is expanded the formal data source to include students, in addition to the traditional peer and administrator judgments. Aside from a few universities and colleges, if students are on personnel committees, they are far outnumbered by the professionals on the committee. Thus guaranteeing the power of the professors and administrators in decision making.

It should be stated again that formal faculty evaluation has traditionally come from two sources: administration through department chairmen, deans, presidents, etc.; and peers from within the professor's discipline (peers need not always be on campus; they can come from other institutions). These two sources have not changed -- they ultimately make the major decisions (in most cases the board of trustees makes the final legal decisions on tenure and promotion), however, they have now been joined formally by the students. In many institutions, student evaluation of faculty has become a formalized procedure expected for most career decisions. Thus the institutionalizing of such procedures indicates that formal student input on evaluation of faculty is "here to stay."

How effective any evaluation system developed is depends on its rationale. The basic premises for evaluation set the parameters within which the validity of the evaluation system is embedded. That is, the validity of the evaluation depends on the why of the evaluation. Evaluation systems developed to be used primarily to supply information for student publications on faculty, or used for comparative purposes, require a different instrument than one that has been developed for faculty improvement. It becomes crucial that at the very beginning of developing an evaluation system, the institution (administration, board of trustees, professors, and students) sets the basic premise(s) for the evaluation procedures. It is quite possible for the evaluation to serve several purposes -- thus a common instrument may not be desirable unless designed to supply comparative as well as diagnostic information.

It should also be noted that the term system is being used; the term is appropriate, since system denotes units and/or decision points that are interrelated in a hierarchical manner in a particular design. Thus procedures and decision points are made public for all to see; there are no hidden pitfalls. In a survey of participants at a conference at the University of Massachusetts on improving university teaching in 1974, the recommendation that generated the strongest agreement was the one that asked that departments define and make public criteria and procedures for evaluating teaching (23:1975). Everyone knows the ground rules and more importantly knows how to "play the game." It means that everyone is (or should be) treated equally.

There are three basic premises that generally form the "why" of faculty evaluation. They are:

1. Evaluation data is used for career decisions (tenure, promotion, merit) by peers and administrators. Normative and comparative data must be supplied.

2. Evaluation data is used by students to give to their peers information concerning the "quality" of both the courses and the professors. Normative, comparative, and descriptive data must be supplied.

3. Evaluation data is used by individual faculty to improve instruction through changes dictated by the evaluation data (data used for and in faculty development; the data should be diagnostic in nature, while normative and comparative data has secondary value).

The first two have been traditional in institutions of higher learning. The third has now gained prominence on college campuses. Institutions (e.g. Northeastern University, Temple University, Virginia Commonwealth University) and groups of institutions (University System of California, Finger Lakes Colleges) have developed formal approaches to faculty development through the organization of specific offices concerned with the improvement of instruction through classroom behavior changes of professors or course modifications.

Of the three premises, it is this author's considered opinion that the improvement of instruction is the only rationale worthy of consideration. It does not make faculty evaluation punitive in nature. Premises #1 and #2 have implicit, if not explicit, negative connotations. This does not mean that information supplied for faculty improvement cannot be used for career decisions (premise #1), however, the focal point is "saving" and "improving" professors and not "isolating" and "firing" them. In these times of extreme economic hardships for institutions and professors, the worst procedures to follow would be punitive or negative -- for professorial morale is very sensitive to threat. Let no one be deceived, for without professors there would be no institutions of higher learning; administrators, students, and state legislators must be made cognizant of this.

THE HOW

Before procedures are discussed concerning the development of an evaluative system, it should be noted that the premise(s) for the evaluation is directly related to the validity of the procedure.

Validity is not being used in a strict statistical sense, rather this author would use the liberal definition supplied by Doyle (9:1):

> 'Validation', then, becomes the process of attributing meaning to data. Meaning is both denotative and connotative; it is arrived at by means of subjective as well as objective procedures; and for its full understanding it requires that a whole body of data, more than any particular subset, be kept in mind.

By including subjective as well as objective input, extenuating circumstances that may effect evaluation (33:1975) can be weighed in light of the premise(s) of the evaluation. That is, one does not only look at numbers, means, and standard deviations generated, but also at the nature of courses and the uniquenesses of such courses to the faculty members. If not, then experimentation in courses and instruction may be greatly reduced or nonexistent. Faculty improvement must allow for a period of testing and adjustment for the individual faculty member; if a faculty member will be "punished" for low ratings, then the chances for improvement will become slim.

Nadeau (28) challenges the profession to extend the meaning of validity in faculty evaluation by considering the concept in terms for:

1. a particular purpose (promotion and tenure, or faculty development).
2. a particular situation (lecture, seminar, IPI, etc.)
3. a particular group (unique nature of student groups)

It should be apparent that the determination of validity might be quite elusive, and that at best the satisfaction of validation will be a product of the nature and purposes for evaluation (Thorndike, 1975; Brandenburg, 1975; Whitely, 1975; Gagné, 1975). Thus institutions should be looking at content validity (i.e. purposes, who will use it, etc.) rather than construct validity, since what constitutes good teaching may be as indescribable as beauty. It may also mean that a single instrument may not be appropriate for an entire institution; not only are there differences among courses, programs and teaching styles (Foster, Alderman, Bell, and Shaw, 1975; Baird, 1973; Benezet, 1973), but the purposes for which the information is used may also be different (Bejar, 1975; Hills, 1974).

There are still many issues that have not been settled as related to student evaluation of faculty in higher education. For example, Bejar (2) suggests that research is needed on students' expectations, preconceptions, and educational needs as related to evaluation of professors. It is interesting to note that Tubb and Stenning (38) found significant differences ($p < .05$) existing between class means for students' ideal perceptions and students' end-of-course evaluation.

How does one describe an effective instructor? Pohlman (30) found an effective instructor to be businesslike (e.g. prepares for class, achieves objectives, and presents a well organized course) as well as one who increases appreciation for the subject matter (affective aspect). Job satisfaction and teaching performance were positively correlated in a study of community college professors reported by Fiedler and Gillo (12); they further found that more "traditional" approaches were related to good teaching performance. While Granzin and Painter (17:122) suggest that "jokes, theatrics, and simply-well-chosen materials and well-delivered lectures are of major importance to achieving high course ratings." It should be quite evident to the reader that a definitive decision concerning student evaluation of professors and the possible intervening and confounding factors that effect such evaluations cannot be made at this time. However, there is enough evidence to indicate that formal student evaluation of a faculty does provide information to individual faculty members; what is provided depends on the nature, purpose, and structure of the evaluation.

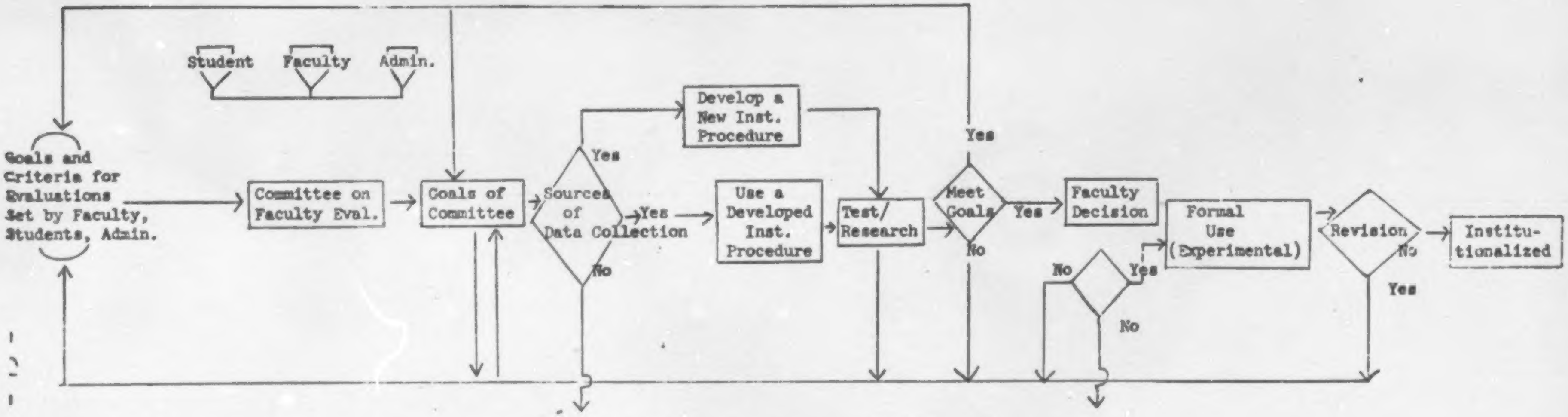
There are several references that the reader may wish to read before moving into the general area of faculty evaluation, regardless of data source and/or premises. They are: Eble's Professors as Teachers (1972) and The Recognition and Evaluation of Teaching (1971); John Centra's Strategies for Improving College Teaching (1972); Richard I. Miller's Evaluating Faculty Performance (1972), and Developing Programs for Faculty Evaluation (1974); Seldin, How Colleges Evaluate Professors (1975), particularly chapters 2 and 4; and Pace's Evaluating Learning and Teaching, (1973). Miller's texts are more how-to-do books on the broad area of evaluation, while the other references tend to be either technical (e.g. how to develop an instrument) or philosophical.

Which sources should an institution tap for information concerning the effectiveness of professors, and on which premise should evaluations be based? The answer to the first part of the question is rather straightforward -- all sources that come directly in contact with professors: students, peers, administrators. Alumni, parents, and legislators tend to have perceptions that may have been effected by time and/or distance; for although they may demand accountability, they are usually not in a position to be a direct source of reliable data concerned with teaching effectiveness in the classroom. As indicated earlier, this author believes that data used for diagnostic purposes is the most defensible base for evaluation, and hopefully would provide the necessary information for instructional improvement under the proper conditions.

How might an institution set about to develop faculty evaluation on a more systematic manner than at present? There is no set or correct approach. Whatever approach, it must be consistent with the level of the faculty, students and administration. To move too far too fast will guarantee hostility and possible outright failure. One approach is illustrated in Figure 2.

First, goals and criteria for evaluation should be set by the faculty with agreement of students and administrators. That is, should faculty evaluations be used exclusively for improvement? for comparative purposes? for student information? or might evaluation serve all three purposes? What weight will teaching, instruction, and supervision have relative to service and research in the overall evaluation of faculty? The goals and criteria should be general, as opposed to specific.

A representative committee of faculty, students, and administrators should be formed to develop specific procedures to implement the general goals. This committee should be faculty dominated and have the authority to develop and test procedure(s) and necessary instrument(s), as well as to determine the sources for data collection (e.g. administration, peers, students). Thus the committee may have to bring in consultants and experts, as well as have a budget for testing, computer time, research time, and printing. The committee should decide


Student
Faculty
Admin.
Goals and Criteria for Evaluations Set by Faculty, Students, Admin.
Committee on Faculty Eval.
Goals of Committee
Sources of Data Collection
Yes
No
Develop a New Inst. Procedure
Yes
Use a Developed Inst. Procedure
Test/ Research
Meet Goals
Yes
Yes
No
Faculty Decision
No
Yes
No
Formal Use (Experimental)
Revision
No
Yes
Institutionalized

Flow of the Development of a Procedure/Instrument

for Faculty Evaluation

Figure 2

on the sources of data collection and whether to develop a new procedure (or instrument if called for) or to adopt an existing procedure (or instrument) already implemented in other institutions. It is quite possible for the committee to decide to abort the entire endeavor at this point. Whichever procedure is accepted by the committee, it should be tested and researched thoroughly on the faculty with faculty participation mandatory, but with random selection, and with results shared only with those faculty involved. All formal reports should not identify faculty members, and the administration is not to receive any information, except through the formal report.

The committee must then decide whether the results of the testing meet the goals set by the committee and the general goals set originally. It must also decide whether the information gathered can be used within the framework of the criteria set. If it does not, it may mean back to the drawing board. If it does, then the faculty as a whole must decide whether to adopt the procedure (or instrument) for formal use on an experimental basis. If the faculty rejects the procedure, then the committee may wish to revise the procedure, go back to the beginning, or give up altogether. After a period of time (as set by the committee), the procedure is either revised (or discarded) or accepted to be institutionalized as the recognized and standard for faculty evaluations. Until that time in which the procedure is institutionalized all data must be considered suspect, and that data used for career decision must be at the option of the faculty member and taken at his/her risk. At this point, normative data (if required) can be collected. The option for revision of procedures (or instruments) should be available if it is determined that what was developed was not meeting the needs of the faculty in the long run.

A procedure may be the development of techniques for: 1) peer evaluation and observation; 2) administrative evaluation and observation; 3) the evaluation of research of faculty members; 4) evaluating contributions of faculty members to college committees; 5) the evaluation of service to the community (academic and non-academic); 6) collecting student perceptions of faculty effectiveness; etc.

Menges (24) describes four approaches that might be used to select items for instruments used by students to evaluate professors:

1. Intuition and Consensus as Guides - Student Instructional Report published by E.T.S. was developed by this approach.
2. Factor Analysis as Guide - Endeavor Instructional Rating Form used by Northwestern University is an example of an instrument developed via this approach.
3. Criterion Groups as a Guide - This approach was used at the University of California at Davis to develop their instrument.
4. Instructor's Goals as Guide - This procedure was used to develop the instruments used at Kansas State University.

A fifth approach advocated by Kapel (22) is an extension of number 2 above. It is a conceptually based approach. The resulting instrument (Instructor Evaluation Form) has been tested and is being used at Temple University.

Silverman and Allenden (35) used a rather unique approach in having students evaluate an introductory course in educational psychology. They used a semiprojective technique for assessing students' reactions.

It should be noted that many items found in instruments are products of a combination of approaches listed above. For example, the Student Evaluation of College Teaching Behaviors (SECTB) developed at the University of Florida used basically #2 and #3 approaches (18). The approach used by an institution depends on the level of sophistication of staff available for the development of such instruments, plus time, money, and support services (e.g. staff, computers, etc.). The last section of this chapter contains examples of instruments used by institutions of higher learning to assess students' perceptions of faculty effectiveness and teaching.

A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH

As indicated earlier in this chapter, a systematic approach to evaluation should be developed. The system should not be complicated and should easily be described, through a flow chart, and understood by faculty, students, and administrators. Faculty should easily be able to identify input sources, decision points, and appeal points. They should also be able to identify exit points as well as where the locus of final authority rests. Figure 3 is an illustration of such a systematic approach to faculty evaluation for promotion, tenure, or merit. The input sources are further described in Figures 4 through 11. These input sources and criterion ratings are based on suggestions by Richard I. Miller (26).

Figure 3

Flow of Input from Source to Final Decision

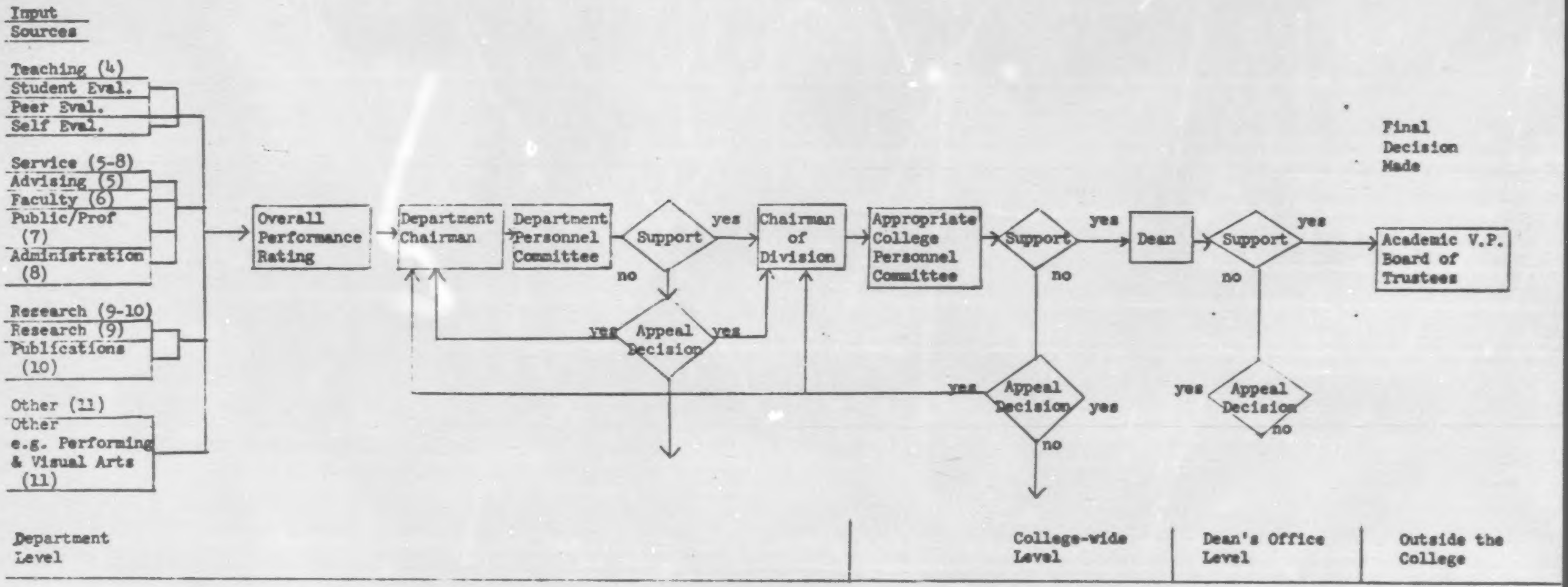
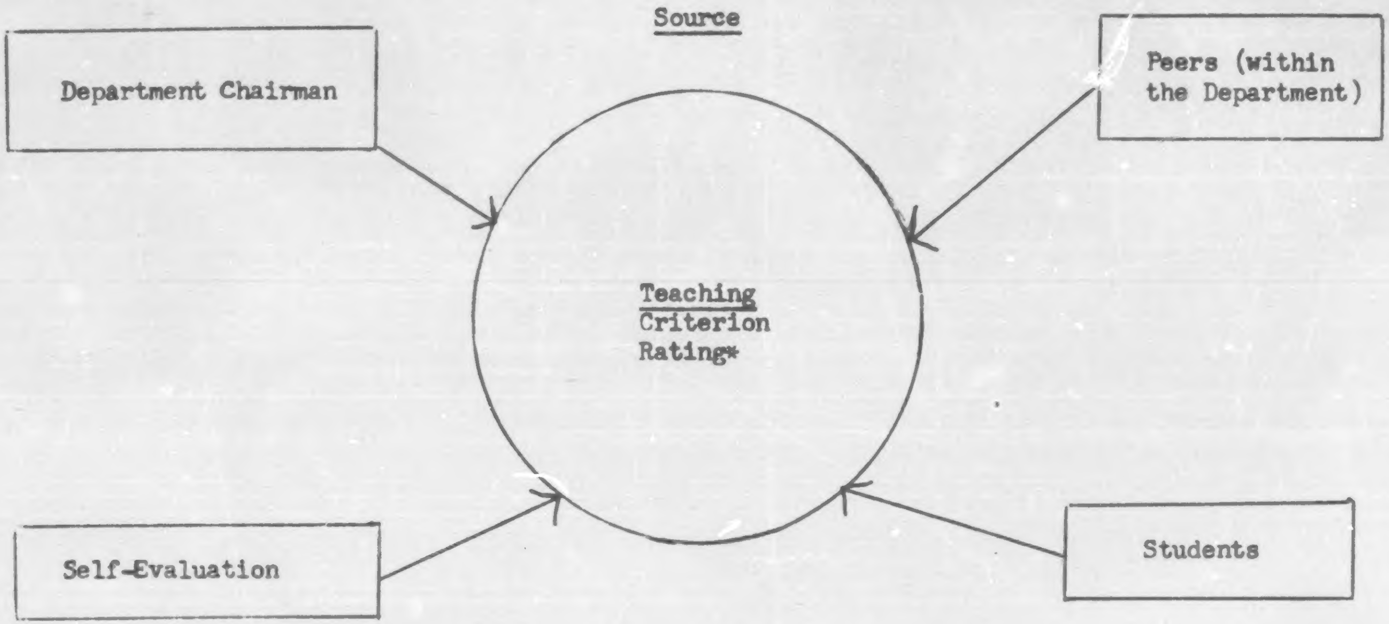

Input Sources
Teaching (4)
Student Eval.
Peer Eval.
Self Eval.
Service (5-8)
Advising (5)
Faculty (6)
Public/Prof (7)
Administration (8)
Research (9-10)
Research (9)
Publications (10)
Other (11)
Other e.g. Performing & Visual Arts (11)
Overall Performance Rating
Department Chairman
Department Personnel Committee
Support
yes
no
Appeal Decision
yes
yes
Chairman of Division
Appropriate College Personnel Committee
Support
yes
no
Appeal Decision
yes
yes
no
Dean
Support
yes
no
Appeal Decision
yes
no
Final Decision Made
Academic V.P. Board of Trustees
Department Level
College-wide Level
Dean's Office Level
Outside the College

Figure 4


Source
Department Chairman
Peers (within the Department)
Teaching Criterion Rating*
Self-Evaluation
Students

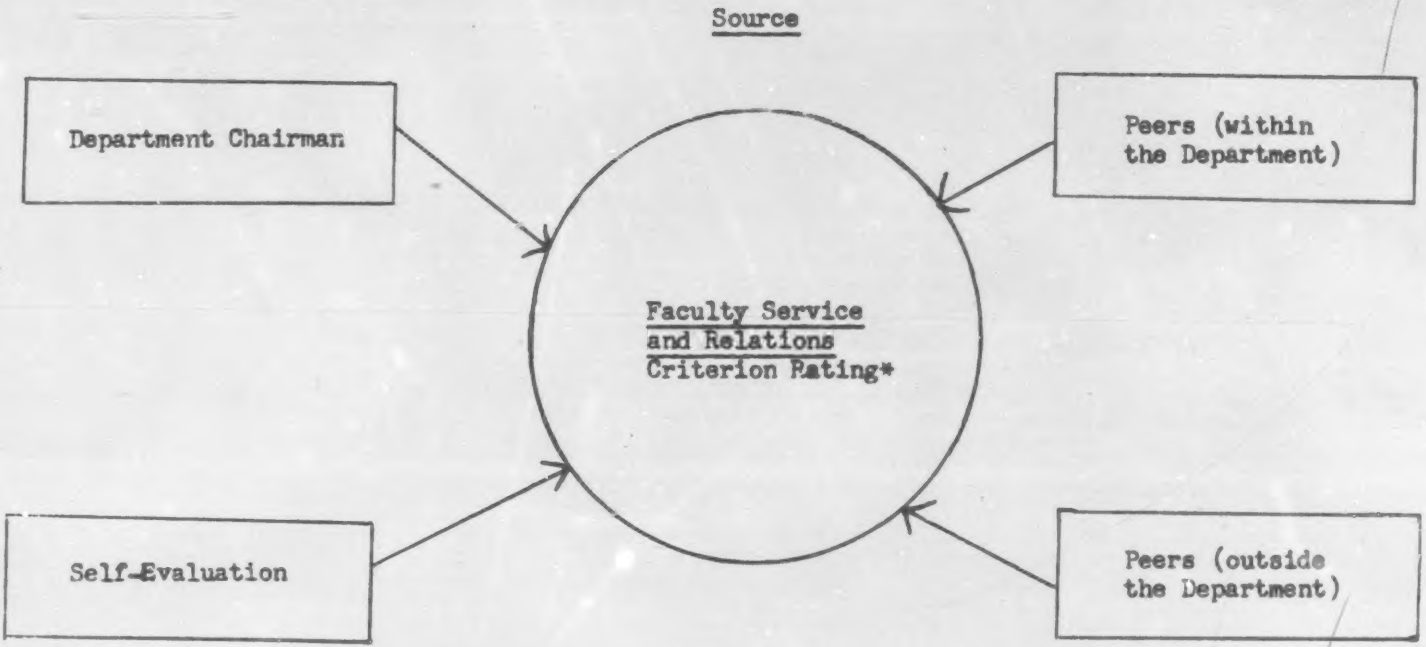
*Criterion may be set by the Department

e.g. __Student appraisal (via an instrument) of faculty
- __Classroom visitation
  - Peers
  - Administration
- __Student appraisal by testing what has been learned in the class by students
- __Special incidence (outside the formal classroom)

Criterion Rating

Don't Know	Lowest Group			Average Group			Top Group
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Figure 5


Source
Department Chairman
Peers (within the Department)
Faculty Service and Relations Criterion Rating*
Self-Evaluation
Peers (outside the Department)

*Criterion may be set by the Department

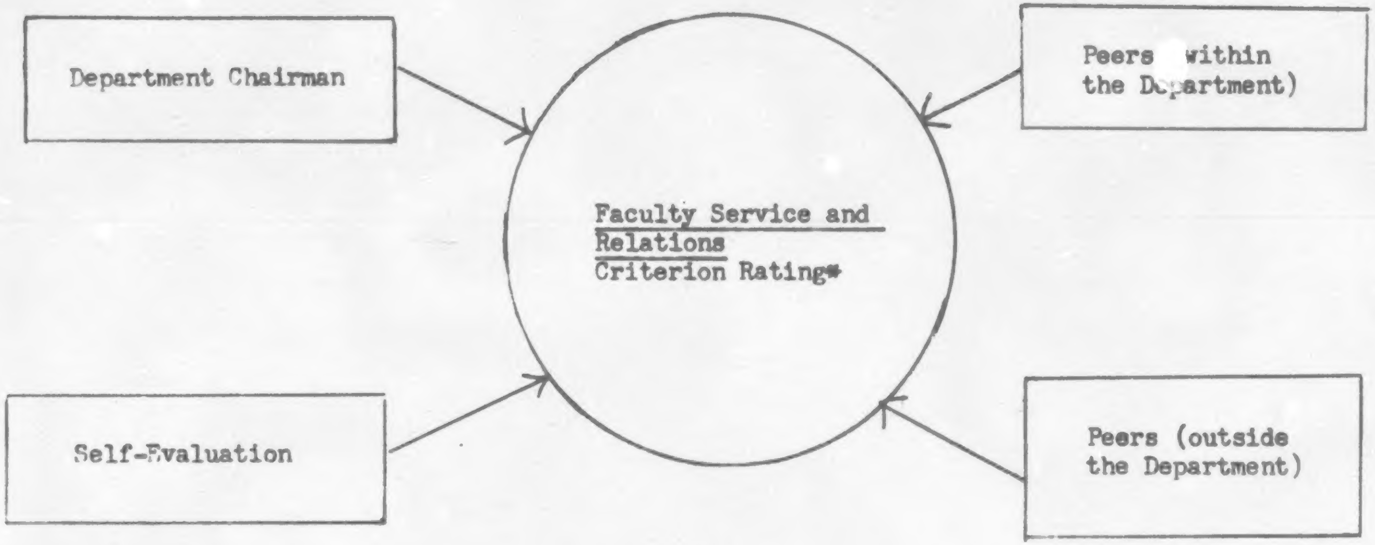
e.g.____Does he accept college assignments willingly?
____Does he volunteer occasionally?
____Does he act in the best interests of the department?
____Does he act in the best interests of the College?
____Does he take a professional attitude toward human relations?
____Does he assist colleagues?
____Is he a good team member?
____At what level do his colleagues perceive his performance?
____Does he act responsibly?

Criterion Rating

Don't know	Never or Lowest			Sometimes or Average			Always Highest
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Figure 6

Source


Department Chairman
Peers (within the Department)
Faculty Service and Relations Criterion Rating*
Self-Evaluation
Peers (outside the Department)

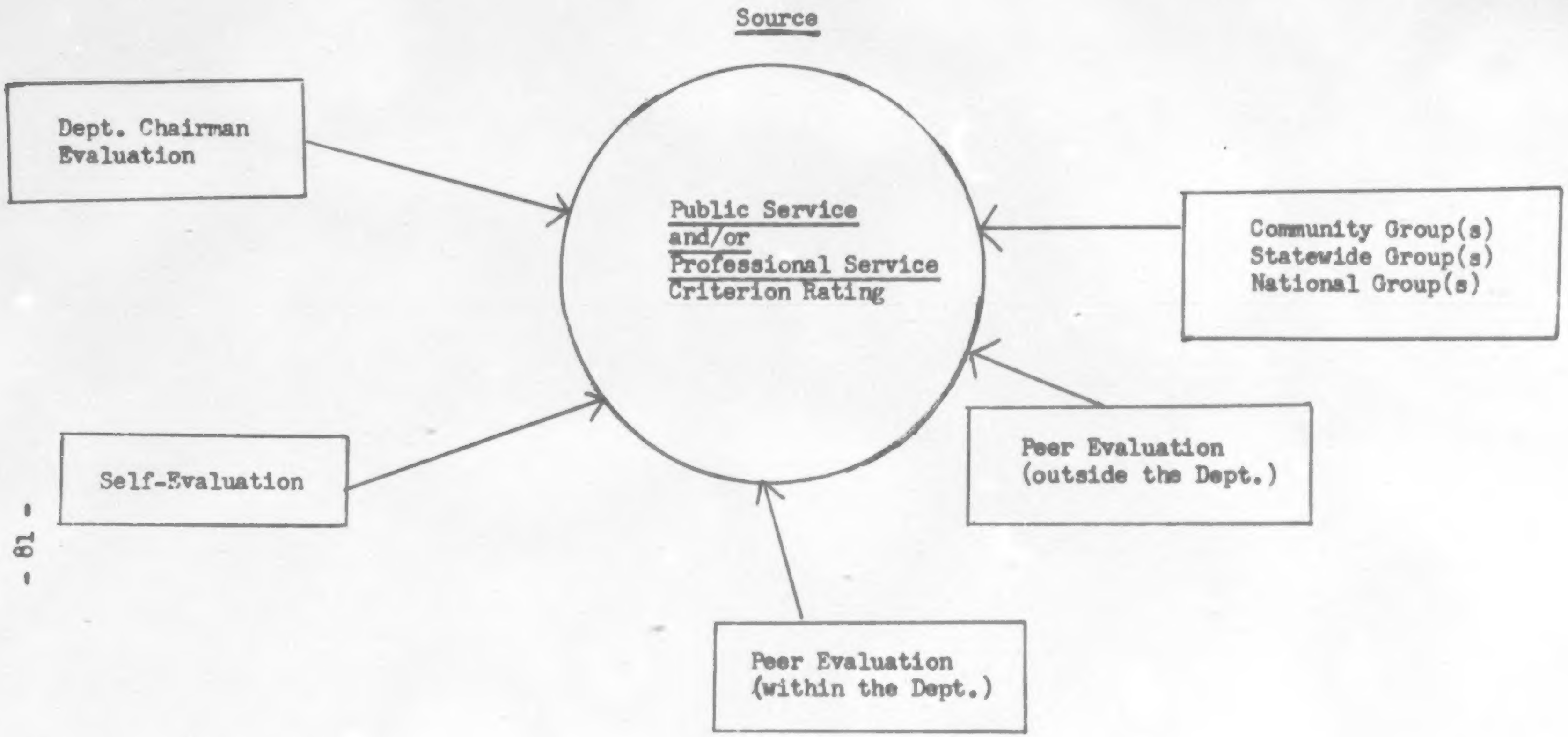
*Criterion may be set by the Department

Criterion Rating

Don't Know	Never or Lowest			Sometimes or Average		Always Highest
x	1	2	3	4	6	7

e.g. ___ Does he accept college assignments willingly?
___ Does he volunteer occasionally?
___ Does he act in the best interests of the department?
___ Does he act in the best interests of the College?
___ Does he take a professional attitude toward human relations?
___ Does he assist colleagues?
___ Is he a good team member?
___ At what level do his colleagues perceive his performance?
___ Does he act responsibly?

Figure 7


Source
Dept. Chairman Evaluation
Public Service and/or Professional Service Criterion Rating
Community Group(s)
Statewide Group(s)
National Group(s)
Self-Evaluation
Peer Evaluation (outside the Dept.)
Peer Evaluation (within the Dept.)

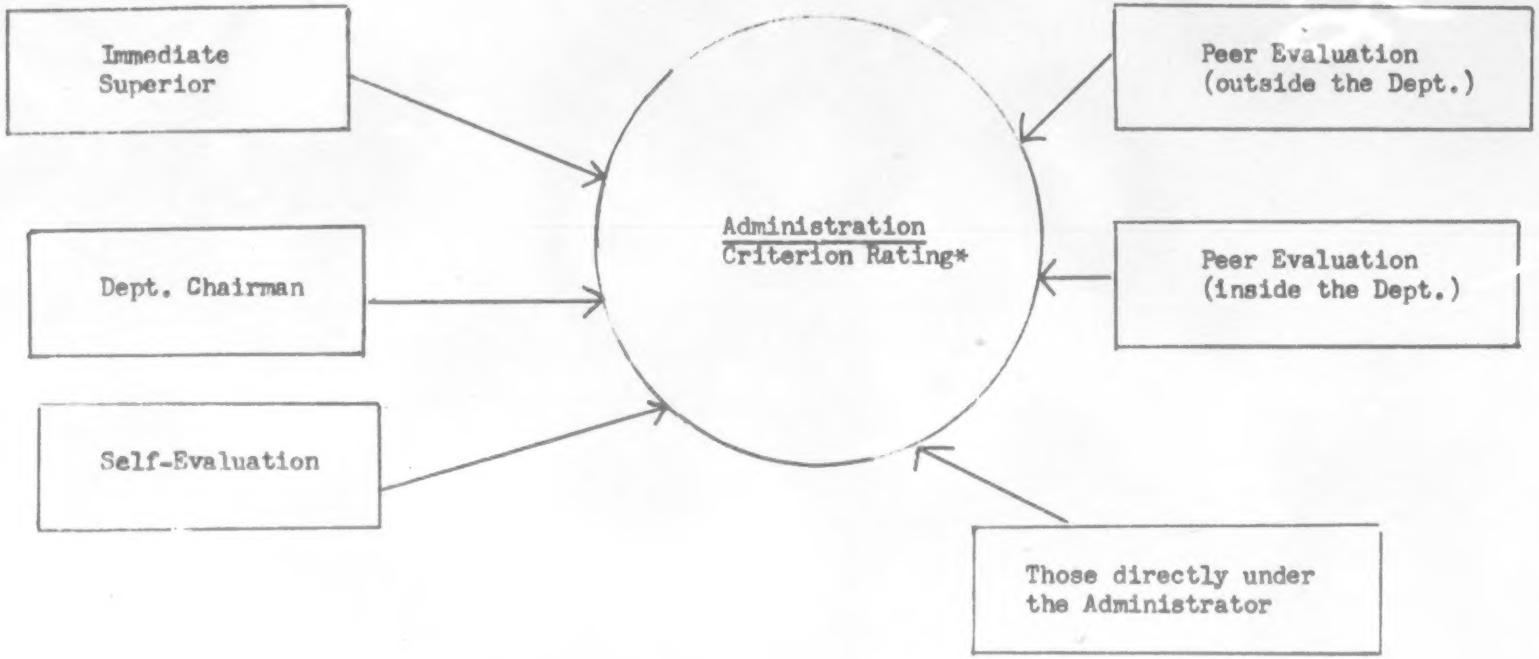
*Criterion may be set by the Department

e.g.__What is the value of the service, as judged by those who receive it?
__What is the value of the service, as judged by colleagues?
__What is the value of the service, as judged by other professionals?

Criterion Rating

Don't Know	Lowest			Average			Highest
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Figure 8


Source
Immediate Superior
Dept. Chairman
Self-Evaluation
Administration Criterion Rating*
Peer Evaluation (outside the Dept.)
Peer Evaluation (inside the Dept.)
Those directly under the Administrator

*Criterion may be set by the Department

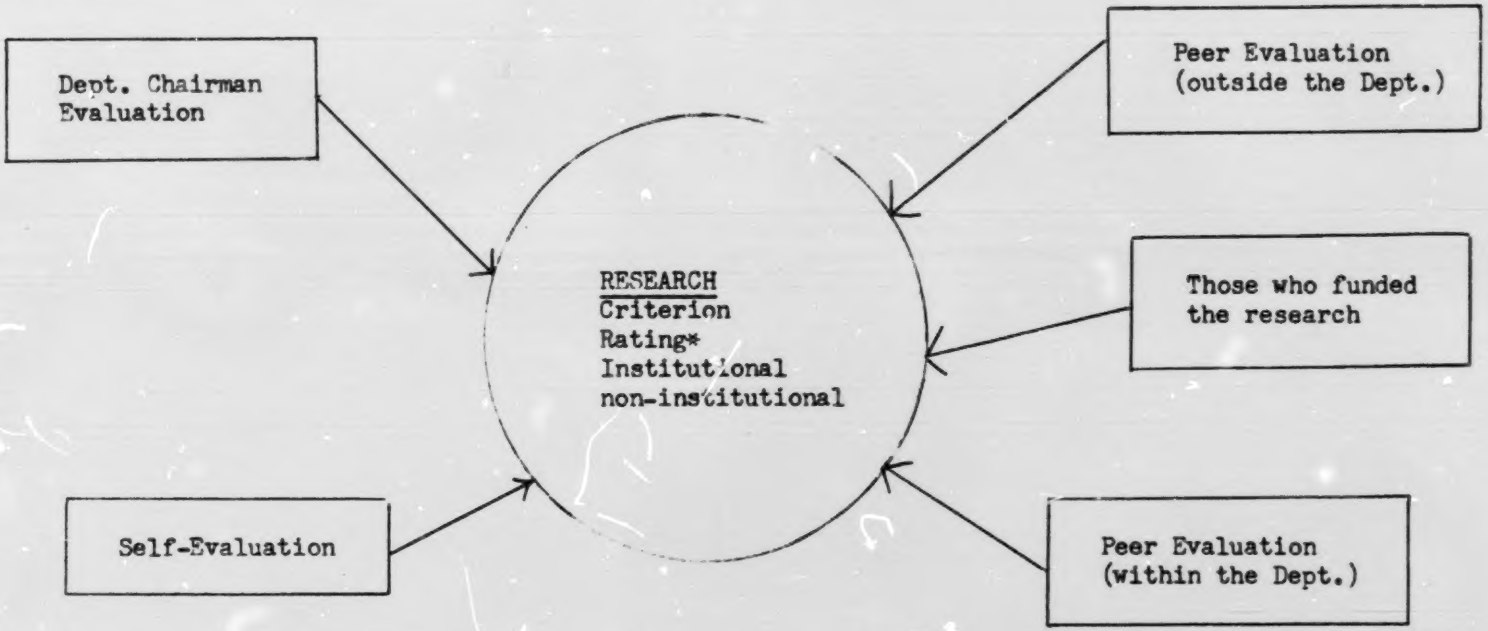
e.g. __Plans effectively
__Plans imaginatively
__Resolves or ameliorates human conflicts
__Says "no" effectively
__Attends to details effectively
__Makes sound decisions
__Willingness to appraise situations (listen) and problems fairly or impartially
__Willingness to put others first
__Works effectively with faculty members
__Availability to clients

Criterion Rating

Don't know	Lowest			Average			Highest
x	1	2	3		5	6	7

Figure 9

Source


Dept. Chairman Evaluation
Peer Evaluation (outside the Dept.)
RESEARCH
Criterion Rating*
Institutional
non-institutional
Those who funded the research
Self-Evaluation
Peer Evaluation (within the Dept.)

*Criterion may be set by the Department

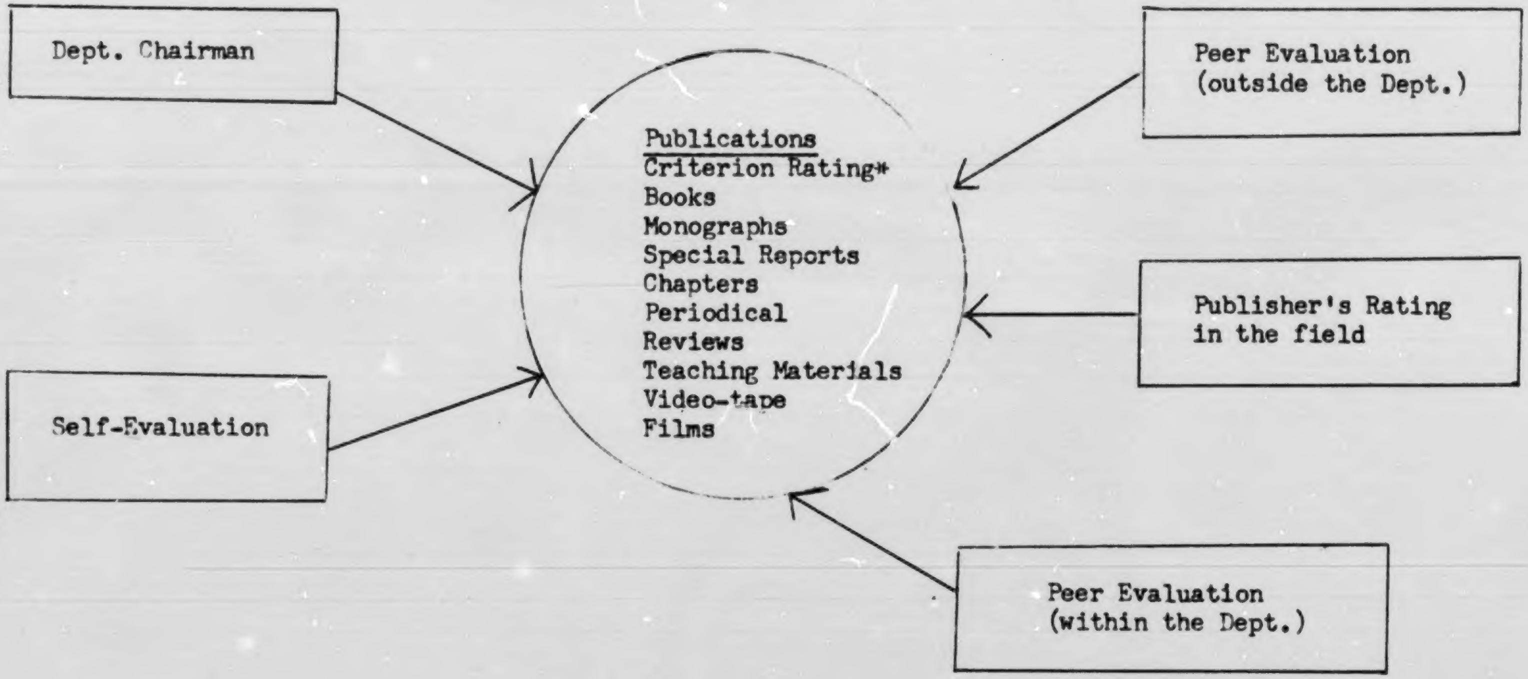
e.g. __How do colleagues within the Dept. generally rate the research?
__How has the report been reviewed?
__Has the research been cited or quoted?
__How does the author rate the research?
__How do colleagues outside the Dept. generally rate the research?
__Was the topic meaningful?

Criterion Rating

Don't know	Lowest			Average			Highest
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Figure 10

Source


Dept. Chairman
Peer Evaluation (outside the Dept.)
Publications
Criterion Rating*
Books
Monographs
Special Reports
Chapters
Periodical
Reviews
Teaching Materials
Video-tape
Films
Publisher's Rating in the field
Self-Evaluation
Peer Evaluation (within the Dept.)

*Criterion may be set by the Department

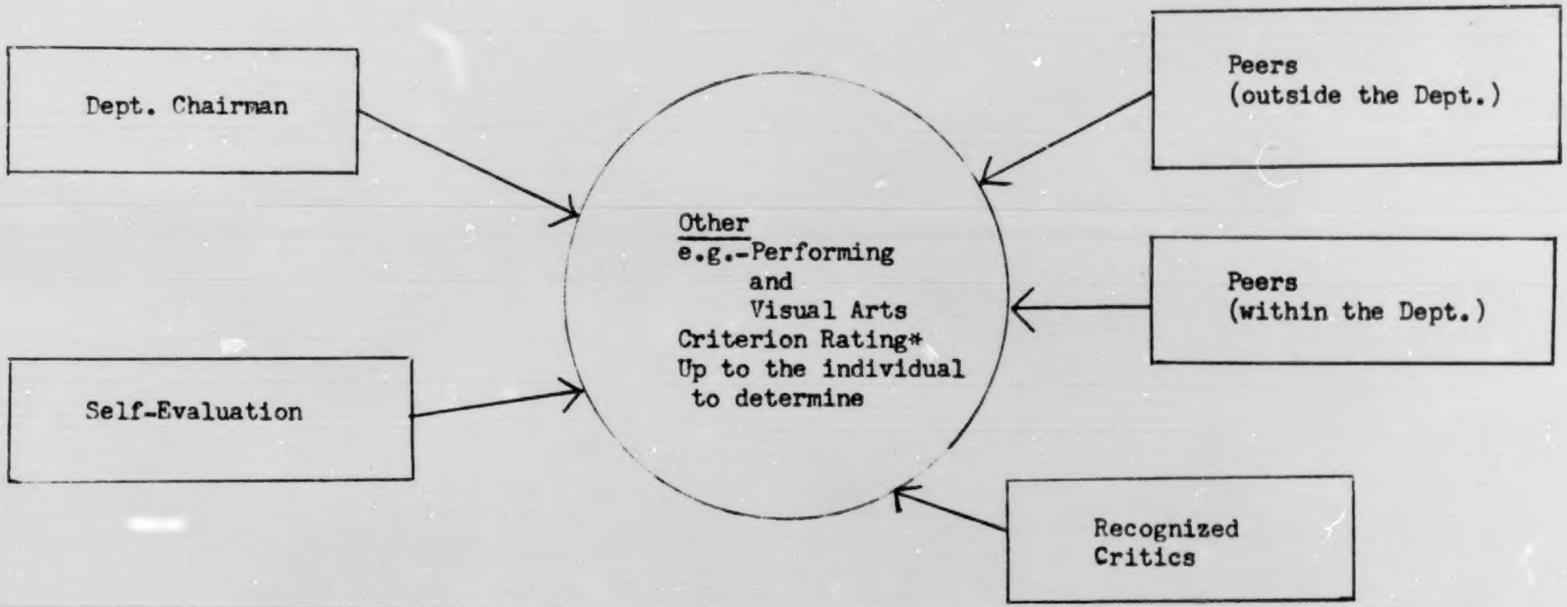
e.g. __How does the publisher rate in this particular field?
__How do colleagues within the field rate the publication?
__How do colleagues within the Department rate the publication?
__How has the publication been reviewed?
__Has the publication been cited or quoted?
__How does the author view the publication?

Criterion Rating

Don't know	Lowest			Average			Highest
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Figure 11

Source


Dept. Chairman
Self-Evaluation
Other
e.g.-Performing and Visual Arts
Criterion Rating*
Up to the individual to determine
Peers (outside the Dept.)
Peers (within the Dept.)
Recognized Critics

*Criterion may be set by the Department

e.g. ___ Judgments of colleagues
___ Judgments of other professionals
___ Newspaper reviews
___ Views of students
___ Views of audience or spectators

Don't know	Lowest or Poor			Average or Fair			Highest or Excellent
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

It is rather evident from Figures 3-11 that a faculty member can see the entire flow from initial input to final decision. He/she can also see the scope and nature of sources of input. Assuming that the department functions with direct faculty inputs, then the faculty member is able to help identify, select, and determine criterion as well as the scale used in the criterion ratings. The overall performance rating can be calculated by utilizing the form found in Table 1 (refer to Miller, 26:73-87).

The faculty member may determine the percent of total effort each category represents for a particular semester (or year) with his/her department chairperson. The criterion ratings are supplied from various sources to either a special committee, an administrator, or an "office of evaluation." The rest is rather straightforward. For example, Professor "K" indicates that teaching will represent 50% of his/her effort, advising 10%, faculty service 20%, and research 20%. Professor "K" receives criterion ratings of 6.2, 5.1, 5.6, 4.8, respectively; thus the raw scores would be 50 x 6.2 = $\underline{310}$, 10 x 5.1 = $\underline{51}$, 20 x 5.6 = $\underline{112}$, and 20 x 4.8 = $\underline{96}$ with a total raw score of 569. The overall rating is determined by dividing 569 by 700; the result is 0.8128. (If a school wanted to use a five point scale, rather than a seven point scale, the procedure is the same; the total raw score would be divided by 500 rather than 700). It is therefore possible to compare faculty through the use of the overall rating.

One may argue that this approach reduces faculty evaluation to quantifiable numbers only. On the other hand, one might argue that the procedure suggested by Miller would reduce the error rate and make

DETERMINING OVERALL PERFORMANCE RATING FORM

Name____________________ Rank: Professors, AP, aP, I, TA, other No. of years_____ Department_______________

	Percent of Total Effort*	X	Criterion Rating**	= Raw Score
1. Teaching				
2. Advising				
3. Faculty Service				
4. Public/Professional Service				
5. Administration				
6. Research				
7. Publications				
8. Other (Describe)				
	100%			Σ __________

Overall Rating***____________

*Determined by individual faculty and appropriate administrator

**Based along a 1 to 7 continuum

(Don't Know	Lowest			Average			Highest)
X	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

***Overall rating = $\Sigma \frac{\text{Raw Score}}{700}$

Table I

evaluations more objective. Just how far and to what extent one goes depends on the faculty involved. In any case the trade-offs are quite high, and one must remember that numbers in and of themselves only represent an evaluation based on a prior criteria and pre-set scales. The stakes are high; an individual's professional career may be made or destroyed -- on which side one errors (subjective? objective?) may not be answerable (although more and more cases are now being decided in the courts).

To illustrate how an individual faculty member may evaluate another faculty member's course (including observations), a form is presented in Table 2. This form utilizes a five point scale; it could be easily adapted to the seven point scale. It is quite evident that both the faculty observer and the one being observed must have significant information and data formulated and supplied -- this includes subject matter content, objectives, students' papers or products, texts used, other devices, tests, other evaluative procedures, bibliography, and observation.

If forms, such as found in Table 2, are developed for each input source and its elements, then the system might become overloaded with data as an individual member moves along the evaluation line towards final decision. All of the forms, initial evaluations and decisions should start at the department level. All forms should stay on file in the department office, unless called for later at other decision or appeal points.

Again, how far an institution goes in developing an in-depth system depends on its own structure, facility, and nature. If a system

Table 2

PEER EVALUATION OF INSTRUCTOR

Name of Evaluator ______________________________

Name of Instructor Being Evaluated ______________________________

Title of the Course ______________________________

Please rate the instructor on the following items, utilizing the scales provided. Circle the appropriate rating and write any comments you wish to make in the space provided.

I. SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT OF THE COURSE

	Not able to judge	Not relevant		Acceptable		Extremely Relevant
a. Relevancy	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Out of date		Acceptable		Very current & up to date
b. Currency of material	x	1	2	3	4	5

c. General Comments

II. STATED OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

	Not able to judge	Not relevant		Acceptable		Extremely Relevant
a. Relevancy	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not clear at all		Acceptable		Extremely clear
b. Clarity	x	1	2	3	4	5

c. General Comments

Table 2 (cont.)

III. STUDENTS' PAPERS OR OTHER ASSIGNMENTS

	Not able to judge	No meaning at all		Acceptable		Extremely Meaningful
a. Meaningfulness	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Very poor		Fair		Extremely High
b. Level produced by the students	x	1	2	3	4	5

c. General Comments

IV. TEXTS USED

	Not able to judge	Out of date		Acceptable		Quite up to date
a. Currency	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not Appropriate		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
b. Appropriate Level	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not at all		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
c. Related to Course Objectives	x	1	2	3	4	5

d. General Comments

Table 2 (cont.)

OTHER DEVICES (e.g. TAPES, GAMES, ETC.)

	Not able to judge	Out of date		Acceptable		Quite up to date
a. Currency	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not appropriate		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
b. Appropriate Level	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not at all		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
c. Relating to Course Objectives	x	1	2	3	4	5

d. General Comments

VI. TESTS

	Not able to judge	Very Poor		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
a. Construction (includes reliability and validity)	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not at All		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
b. Related to course objectives	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Much too difficult		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
c. Difficulty level	x	1	2	3	4	5

d. General Comments

Table 2 (cont.)

VII. OTHER EVALUATIVE PROCEDURES

	Not able to judge	Very poor		Acceptable		Excellent well-made
a. Construction (includes validity and reliability)	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Not at All		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
b. Related to course objectives	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Much too difficult		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
c. Difficulty level	x	1	2	3	4	5

d. General comments

VIII. BIBLIOGRAPHY OR REFERENCES FOR THE COURSE

	Not able to judge	Out of Date		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
a. Currency	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Out of Date		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
b. Appropriate level	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Most were very insignificant		Acceptable		Most of the works were significant
c. Significant Works Represented	x	1	2	3	4	5

VIII. (cont.)

Table 2 (cont.)

	Not able to judge	Not meaningful at all		Acceptable		Extremely Meaningful
d. Meaningfulness for students	x	1	2	3	4	5

e. General Comments

IX. OBSERVANCE OF INSTRUCTION

	Not able to judge	Not Appropriate		Acceptable		Extremely Appropriate
a. Instructional Procedures Used	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Very Poor		Fair		Excellent
b. Students' reactions to the procedures appears to be	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Very Poor		Acceptable		Excellent
c. Organization	x	1	2	3	4	5

	Not able to judge	Very Poor		Fair		Excellent
d. General rating of what you observed	x	1	2	3	4	5

e. General Comments

is too top heavy with committees on committees, or overworked with tons of data, then its effectiveness will be quite limited. The system should protect the competent professor, help the professor who can benefit from additional help and support, and identify the incompetent and non-solvable faculty member. The institution owes the development of such a system to the students, to the profession, and to those who support the institution (in that order).

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

How does one help professors become better and consequently improve instruction (premise #1 developed earlier in this chapter)? This question is being raised more and more, and is a logical consequence of student evaluations of faculty. It would be difficult to defend the firing of all faculty below a certain point on a scale used in student evaluation of professors. Given the question of validity of student evaluations, the nature of institutions, and the traditional academic reward system, the need to build on faculty strengths and shore-up weak areas becomes apparent. The "so what" question is being asked by students -- they are filling out forms and see little change in faculty behavior. Thus the profession owes it to the students and faculty to take the next step of doing something about all the data now available. Accountability cannot be hidden behind the tower of tenure. The saving of human resources (in this case professors) is a sufficient enough reason for faculty development. The changing times and the changing technologies is another cogent reason. The changing nature of the student body (e.g. older students, high risk students, students from different S.E.S. levels, etc.) in institutions demand professors who are "current" and aware of changes in student populations and needs.

Faculty development, instructional development, or whatever other title is given, has as its purpose the improvement of instruction through the cooperation of faculty and the maximized use of materials and facilities in changing (improving) faculty behavior in the classroom. As stated earlier, offices of faculty improvement, development, etc. are being formed by institutions of higher learning. The literature is beginning to reflect this movement towards a more systematic approach to the improvement of instruction. It is suggested that the reader refer to Bergquist and Phillips (1975), Munson, Mason, and Wergin (1975), and Freedman (1973) for an excellent extensive introduction and background to faculty development programs. In addition, the reader may wish to refer to Gaff (1975) for a listing of instructional improvement centers. A new national organization that focuses on faculty development and evaluation has been started -- this organization also publishes a quarterly newsletter (Smith, 1975).

This chapter has dealt with the who - why - how of faculty evaluation. If it appears that more questions have been raised than settled, it is a problem faced in all evaluations. Evaluation of humans is most difficult, and possibly the most difficult of all humans are the professors. For in spite of what many people think of professors, (and in spite of what professors might think of themselves), they are humans. To confound the problem even further, the decision on what are good and effective teaching techniques and procedures is still in the hands of the jury. Until such a decision is rendered (if at all), faculty evaluation will evoke considerable concern for all those involved directly and indirectly in higher education. Let us hope that the guess work and error can be reduced by developing a systematic approach that considers all significant input and focuses on the improvement of instruction.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The community college is a complex institution. It has been challenged to coordinate the functioning of its many programs and services in such a way as to promote a climate of unification. The nature of the community college indicates that the definition of administration as presented by Shaw (9:26) may be appropriate when attempting to arrive at a perception as to the question of "what is administration?" Shaw has presented a view that:

> Administration is the increasingly specialized activity which plans, organizes, and directs the resources of people and things to the support and enablement of the teaching-learning situations appropriate to the institution's goals and to the needs and purposes of students, faculty, and society.

That definition of administration may be particularly appropriate to the comprehensive college, especially when we realize that it considers administration as a process involving specialized activities that require the interaction of all constituencies toward the goal of promoting the effectiveness of the teaching-learning environment. Those components of administration are placed within the context that those processes, interactions, and learning situations must be appropriate to the institution and the community college must be motivated and free to respond to those needs that are specific to the community being served.

The importance of the recognition that administration requires process can not be overemphasized, since without process the administrator would be like a juggler trying to keep a maximum number of balls in the air in fear of the resulting impact when one or all of those balls lands in his lap.

The administrative climate and structure in a community college must promote those conditions that encourage and allow for meaningful planning to take place. Each institution must develop its own master plan while being consistent with the master plan of the State within which it receives its authority to function. Activities and procedures must exist to enable each college to establish a budget that is sufficient to support all programs and services; the activity of budget development can be most effective if we recognize that a budget is an "educational plan." The budget reflects clearly the commitment of an institution to its programs and services. The success of the planning and budget activities of the administrative process is directly affected by the support community college leaders receive when they attempt to tell their school story to local and state agencies. In these days of increased financial limitation, it is critical that all involved individuals and agencies recognize and accept the condition that community college opportunities must be available at a low level of cost to each student.

The varied programs and services of the community college require an organizational pattern that effectively utilizes the skills of a staff that is quite heterogeneous in terms of levels of preparation and specific areas of expertise. Community colleges are typically required to develop a formal organizational pattern that clearly provides for the continuous interaction of staff members both within and among programs. The organizational patterns of mature community colleges are becoming more horizontal in nature, rather than maintaining the traditional vertical structure. Our two-year colleges are urged to staff their programs with a balanced faculty; a faculty that will expose the students to both professionals and paraprofessionals representative of a range of personal and professional experiences.

The administrative process is compelled to provide all possible assistance to both students and faculty in terms of promoting the effectiveness of the teaching-learning situation. The community colleges are committed to the concept that teaching is their primary raison d'etre. The problem of financial limitation coupled with the demand for accountability have combined to confront the administrator with the task of improving instruction since keeping costs at a minimum. The concept of tenure is under attack while demands are being voiced from some quarters for colleges to set percentage maximums for each level of academic rank and for the number of professionals that can be tenured. These conditions have frequently combined to make the task of the conscientious supervisor untenable. It is not uncommon to find that professionals are only observed and evaluated for the purpose of either recontracting, tenure, or promotion. The concept that supervision is an activity designed to assist each professional or paraprofessional in developing his level of effectiveness has been minimally visible in many institutions. Increasingly the tenured professional is seldom involved with supervisory activities related to the development of his personal skills. He may be involved in the process of evaluating junior colleagues, but is often overlooked as a professional who needs to review, evaluate, and improve in the performance of his tasks. Evaluation is but one aspect of the supervisory process. We must take care to insure that the tail does not wag the dog; that we develop a program of supervision that frees the professional to review, evaluate, plan and implement in an attempt to improve. The dilemma of the supervisor is compounded when we realize the phenomenal growth in the number of adjunct professors and their potential impact on learning. Those same fiscal limitations that have prompted this increase in adjunct staff have also created a condition that has restricted the ability of our community colleges to hire or fire a sufficient number of skilled supervisors to resolve this challenge. A major task of the supervisor is to motivate. The literature indicates that professionals are best motivated when they are provided with those services and opportunities which they view as being supportive of their need to utilize their skills and potentials to the maximum. An inadequate supervisory system can lead to a condition and environment that, in fact, will undermine any attempts toward motivating the staff.

The coordination of the activities of all offices, programs, divisions and departments requires a system that permits the flow of communication both horizontally and vertically. An effective system of coordination is necessary before the community college can move toward the effective utilization of its human, physical, and financial resources. All of the resources of any complex institution are highly interdependent; each affected by the other. An administration structure that promotes the mobility and interaction of its staff and students is a prerequisite for institutional efficiency and effectiveness.

The nature of the community college and the environment within which it exists compounds the complexity of the requirement of the activity of coordination. A true community college must be concerned with the coordination and involvement of the activities of many agencies and organizations that are external to the college itself. Our two-year colleges must move into the community for purposes related to each of their functions. Students cannot be thoroughly served if we ignore the activities and facilities available within the community. Our community colleges are being prompted to move many of their curricular activities into the communities, utilizing their resources. Educational programs may well be improved when our comprehensive colleges recognize those values to be accrued through consortium with other two- and four-year colleges, industry, and varied community agencies. Numerous organizations, both public and private, have much to offer in assisting our community colleges in attaining those goals related to their occupational, community service, developmental, counseling and guidance, continuing education, general education and parallel programs. A major difficulty in developing and coordinating cooperative efforts is that of maintaining the local integrity of the community college. The increased involvement of state and federal agencies at all levels of higher education has led educators to warn that resulting restrictions or requirements may tend to be in conflict with those perceived goals or existing policies established at the local level.

Broomall (1:7-9) conducted a survey of the relationship between sources of revenue and occupational program emphasis in the community colleges within the southeastern accrediting region (N=104). He reported that a linear relationship existed between occupational emphasis and student fees; the higher the occupational emphasis the lower the proportion of operating revenue provided from student fees. Conversely, the lower the emphasis on occupational programs the higher the proportion of operating revenue provided from student fees. Those community colleges with higher occupational emphasis tended to receive higher proportions of state funds. Those funds received from federal sources were reported to have little or no relationship to occupational emphasis. Broomall inferred that community colleges may "have learned that vying for federal funds may ultimately entail giving up a degree of autonomy, reordering some priorities, and/or an eventual budgetary commitment which they cannot afford."

The critical aspect of administrative decision-making requires that judgments be based upon fact. Too frequently decisions are arrived at through processes that emphasize assumption as a basis of reference rather than reference to data or theory that have resulted from valid research efforts. The total administrative process will be undermined if the cycle of administrative activity ignores the critical activity of institutional research. An effective research activity requires that a skilled professional work cooperatively within the community college, and with local, state and federal organizations and agencies.

A skilled educational researcher must be provided with those support facilities and services which will enable him to conduct research related to such concerns as student achievement, teaching effectiveness, the effectiveness of alternative modes of instruction, student enrollment projections, program validity, future programmatic needs, the needs of the community, funding availability and process, resource services for faculty research and publication, follow-up evaluation of the performance of graduates, and changes in the nature and requirements for success in varied occupational pursuits.

The local boards of trustees of our community colleges have been traditionally expected to promote and maintain the local integrity of their institutions through establishment of policy. The president of each two-year college acts as the chief executive officer of each board, being required to implement the policies of that governing body. The nature of the relationship that exists between each president and his board is critical. The task of developing and maintaining that positive relationship has become extremely complex. Watkins (12:9) has noted that the involvement of trustees in the administration of our community colleges has increased. Some of the variables identified as having prompted the increased participation of trustees in administrative affairs are the intervention of state agencies, the demand for accountability, affirmative action requirements, collective bargaining and the increasing potential for members of boards of trustees to be sued.

A community college professor at Brookdale Community College was recently awarded $104,000 in damages by a superior court judge of New Jersey (11). The court ordered each of six trustees to pay $10,000 in compensatory damages to that professor who had previously not been recontracted. The judge stated that "punitive damages are absolutely necessary to impress people in authority that an employee's constitutional rights cannot be infringed."

The community college president faces the challenge of complying with the requirements of many agencies external to his immediate campus, while at the same time he is expected to implement the formalized desires of the board. In essence, the president must maintain the integrity of his two-year college as an institution designed to serve local needs, while complying with external demands. He must work cooperatively with his board, and with those agencies and authorities that directly affect his institution. He must also maintain his status as the chief administrator and leader on campus; continually guarding against the unreasonable intrusion of any individual or group in the normal administrative functioning of his college.

Collective bargaining as an aspect of the system of governance has been recognized as a factor in the changing relationship between the president and board of trustees in the community college (5:77). Collective bargaining is one aspect of the process of governance. Governance may be viewed as that organization and process designed to promote the effective involvement of college constituencies in decision making activities. Richardson, Blocker and Bender (8:183) have recognized that "just as there is within each institution a structure of administration, so too should there be a structure for governance." The State of New Jersey has acted consistently with that statement in that the regulations of the State Board of Higher Education are required to establish general policy for the governance of their county community colleges. The Board of Higher Education of New Jersey has recognized that "academic freedom is a fundamental prerequisite for excellence in higher education," and "closely related to the question of academic freedom is meaningful and systematic involvement of faculty in the governance of the college or university."

The issue of the degree of centralization of governance within the California system of higher education was considered by Brossman (2:5). He presented the opinion that the states could decentralize governance "without giving up responsible statewide responsibility and coordination." He felt that local boards and chief executive offices should be responsible and accountable for governance on their campuses with local processes and mechanisms being structured on each campus, with review at the state level and corrective measures being handled at the legislative level when necessary (Ibid, 9).

When considering trends in governance patterns in our colleges, it seems that our institutions of higher education have moved from a dual pattern to a bureaucratic pattern, and then to evidence some commitment to the concept of shared authority. Richardson, et. al. (8:183-185) have expressed the perception that the dual decision-making process resulted in a condition whereby administrators and faculty operated in splendid isolation of each other. They further expressed the opinion that the bureaucratic governance process created an environment that enabled only administrators to gain significant experience in the process of decision-making. They presented their concept of a participational model which would enable each college constituency to develop a structure through which its legitimate interests could be "identified, formalized, and vigorously represented in relationships with other constituencies and the board." Collins (3) espoused a democratic system of governance for, among other reasons, it harnessed a maximum amount of talent and wisdom while it reduced frustration. The American Association of Higher Education Task Force recommended a system of shared authority between administrators and faculty involving a wide variety of issues (3).

Collective bargaining has been viewed by some authorities as posing a threat to the concept of shared authority in governance. Strohm (10:24) sees collective bargaining "as a new way of sharing authority and enforcing the right of the faculty to a share in decision making." However, Lombardi (7:11) views collective bargaining as upsetting the theory of governance as a cooperative endeavor. Collective bargaining has been viewed as one form of shared authority by Hankin (6:11) "in the sense that both the board and the faculty have to agree before an agreement is consumated."

Collective bargaining as an aspect of governance has grown in acceptance in our community colleges. Community college administrators who dislike the trend toward collective negotiations can do little but adjust to the bargaining process if their faculties decide that the industrial labor-management relations model is appropriate to their community college. States are increasingly granting faculties of community colleges the right to negotiate. The Public Employees Relations Act of the State of New Jersey grants public employees (with some exceptions) the right to organize, negotiate, enter into agreement and grieve when decisions or policies conflict with those provisions contained within the ratified contract. Collective bargaining activities have clearly increased in our community colleges; it must be recognized that this trend indicates that faculty members feel that they must be more meaningfully involved in the process of governance. As administrators and faculty members interact during the negotiations process, they must be continually aware that they are functioning within an academic and professional setting, and thus have a responsibility to serve not only their interests but the needs of their students and the public whom they serve. The collective bargaining process not only affects the process of input for many faculty and administrators; it may also bring about changes in the organizational patterns and behavioral expectations related to each of those constituencies.

The administrators of our public two-year colleges are besieged by many pressures. The functions of the community colleges are being questioned while at the same time some of those functions are being assumed by proprietary and other public institutions. Programs are expected to increase in effectiveness while at the same time local and state governments are unwilling to provide the financial support necessary to meet emerging challenges. Local boards of trustees are frequently requesting greater financial support from the state level, while at the same time those trustees expect that the state will not attempt to impinge on their freedom to make decisions at the local level. Enrollment patterns are changing with more students entering occupational programs on a part-time basis. The interest of the public in occupational programs has grown, and our community colleges are being asked to develop new programs that are often highly expensive at a time when unemployment is up and public monies are less available. Community colleges must recognize that they must keep abreast of changing societal variables. The administrators of those public two-year colleges face the task of arriving at valid decisions related to long-term goals. That task must be achieved within an environment of confusion and crisis; an environment which tends to perpetuate, support, and encourage those administrative activities that focus on the resolution of immediate problems for the purpose of institutional maintenance.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

THE MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

It shall be my intent in this paper to approach some of the principal needs of individuals and groups of community college staff members from a particular point of departure, that of the faculty organization in its various manifestations. This is nothing new; however, my chief thesis may startle many who have dealt with organized faculty either as allies, adversaries or observers. That thesis is that intra-institutional organizations, far from fomenting conflict can, under the proper circumstances, greatly facilitate the alleviation or resolution of such conflict.

The paper will have to cover five aspects of the problem in order to demonstrate the thesis. A starting point should be a review of the needs of community college teachers which might lead to conflict generation. This will be followed by a brief discussion on the nature of conflict. Then I shall offer a paradigm for conflict resolution for your consideration. A substantial section of the paper will deal with the various extant models of community college faculty organization. Finally, I shall conclude with some constructive criticism, based on our experiences thus far, and the prognosis for community college faculty organizations, at least in the relatively immediate future.

The Needs of Teachers

Personal goals not met through the organization which is an individual's primary locus will result in dissatisfaction which, when acute enough, demands alleviation (March and Simon, 1958). The same authors, writing of organizations in general, pointed out that there is evidence that wages are only one of the rewards a system can offer -- that a satisfactory level of wages may be needed, but that worker production is not linearly connected to higher wages, and that the impact of high wages is not stable over time. One writer (Rehmus, 1966) felt that at the elementary-secondary school level economic reasons, though present, are not the most important ones. He cited improvement in the economic status of teachers immediately preceding faculty militancy. He felt that teachers have a need to control the conditions of their work, especially in times of change. He further felt that they want a voice in the way their work should be conducted, resenting the arbitrary controls they often meet. Other theorists noted (Cyert and March, 1959) a trend away from monetary payments to policy commitment payments, especially in public and voluntary organization.

Moving from the area of feelings to objective research, the reader finds relatively few useful studies to help determine community college faculty needs. One university study (Russell, 1962) determined the attractions which might lure away professors. The most important reasons were: 1) scholarly reputation of an institution; 2) much larger salary; 3) opportunities for research; 4) extent of normal teaching load; 5) library facilities. But these seem not very applicable to the teacher at the two-year college. Again, 1351 college teachers were surveyed (Kelly, 1949). It was found that working conditions, especially office space and clerical help, were not satisfactory for a large proportion of those queried. An intensive study (Allen, 1961; Allen and Sutherland, 1963) of a rather small sample of new faculty members at four-year institutions found that private offices, acquisition of information about the college and their students, and academic freedom were most important in creating morale. Stecklein has published extensively on recruiting and retention of teachers. We are told (Stecklein and Lathrop, 1960) that studies in two sections of the country found salaries and fringe benefits to be most important, followed by lighter loads, time for research, and a stimulating atmosphere. Eckert and Stecklein (1961) included junior college teachers in their survey, and found poor salary to be a major dissatisfaction among that group. An NEA study (Graybeal, 1966) found 37 percent of junior college faculty reporting important restraints on academic freedom with an additional 3.7 percent claiming little academic freedom. The same study found 45.7 percent reporting that their colleges allowed them less authority in curriculum decisions than they felt they should have. Conflict was found (Niland, 1964) in a number of areas in junior colleges, all of them generally coming down to a desire on the part of the teacher to have a voice in decisions affecting the conditions of his work. Garrison (1967) attempted to determine the professional needs of junior college faculty members in an exploratory, open-ended study; lack of time for class preparation, for further study, or even for reflection was a predominant theme for his respondents, as was a concern that a faculty voice be effectively heard through some mechanism at all significant decision-making levels.

The present author drew upon all of these studies to prepare an instrument for querying faculty members at a number of community colleges around the country. A rank order listing of the concerns of 297 full time faculty members turned out to have "competitive salary" in first place, followed in order by: 2) academic freedom; 3) small class size; 4) chance for further study; 5) sabbatical leave; 6) a voice in curriculum policy; 7) tenure; and 8) retirement plan.

The Nature of Conflict

A number of writers (Follett, 1940;[1] Ellis, 1958; Clark, 1961) have pointed out that some degree of conflict is healthy. We need both strong faculties and vigorous administrations to emulate the healthy pluralism of democracies. The conflict with which we should concern ourselves is that which exceeds healthy pluralism and approaches non-integrative disruptiveness. But such a statement implies a defined point beyond which conflict is disruptive. In addition to the difficulty in telling when that point is reached, political philosophers would differ even in assigning such a point. Georg Simmel and others after him, (Simmel, 1955; Lipset, 1960) held the extreme view that all conflict is beneficial. Lieberman (1968) implied that the bargaining process in school situations could be a positive good.

One definition of conflict (Goldman, 1966, p. 335) drew upon earlier thinkers in this field:

> CONFLICT SITUATION: A social relationship between two or more parties (persons, groups, or empirically distinguishable entities) in which at least one of the parties perceives the other as an adversary engaging in behaviors designed to destroy, injure, thwart, or gain scarce resources at the expense of the perceiver.

The adversary relationship stressed by this definition infers the non-integrative aspect of conflict. Conflict would seem to be harmful when the adversaries channel very much of their energies into defending against perceived attacks rather than into constructive criticism or cooperation. Coleman (1957) also touched upon this notion when he observed that conflict often deteriorates from attacking issues to attacking opponents.

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[1] Mary Parker Follett actually wrote much earlier than 1940, but a clear and concise statement of her work can be found in Metcalf and Urick.

The relative scarcity of resources is an important component of conflict, too, although again the perceived situation is at least as important as the real case when there are discrepancies between the two. Using money for salaries as an obvious example of available resources, conflict varies with scarcity or abundance. Peaking in the 1960's was the academic marketplace (Caplow and McGee, 1965) when demand for college teachers and a booming post-war economy combined to bid up professorial salaries to unprecedented levels There was always money, it seemed, to hire faculty, and salary demands were met through individual entrepreneurship. There was individual negotiating but little, if any, collective dissatisfaction with salaries among academics. In the mid-70's era of steady-state enrollments, fiscally beleaguered governmental funding agencies and, of course, inflation shrinking faculty paychecks, it is safe to assume that salaries and perhaps job security are very high on the list, of potential conflict generators.

The scarcity of resources has been dealt with by sociologists in zero-sum game theory, a zero-sum game being defined as one in which the sum of gains and losses for all players equals zero or, in other words, where one participant's gain has to be at the expense of another. But are community colleges limited to zero-sum games? Boyan (1966) questioned the fixed power concept of the industrial model. He advocated a dual representation of faculty, one group to concern itself with salary, hours and working conditions, and the other to assume some responsibility for basic institutional questions. Ohm (1966) also suggested that in a school, an open system, the amount of authority could be increased, each constituency assuming enough to carry out its responsibilities. On the other hand, there are still many community college administrators who regard all issues, even those of little import, as matters of personal prerogative and emphatically as zero-sum games.

Two more dimensions of conflict situations may be derived from Coleman's important work on community conflict (1957). One of these is the division into problems which are soluble within a community and those which are insoluble there. In the case of two-year colleges, numerous areas of potential conflict are partially or completely within some extra-institutional jurisdiction. Revenues, for instance, are typically generated in large part at a state level and at an intermediate (county or school district) level. State education codes and higher education coordinating agencies affect decision making. Various professional organizations (e.g. National League for Nursing) effectually determine such questions as teacher-student ratio. Coleman's other division of problems is into those which unify all members of a community by affecting them equally and those which affect various segments of the community differently and may end by pitting them against each other.

Conflict Resolution

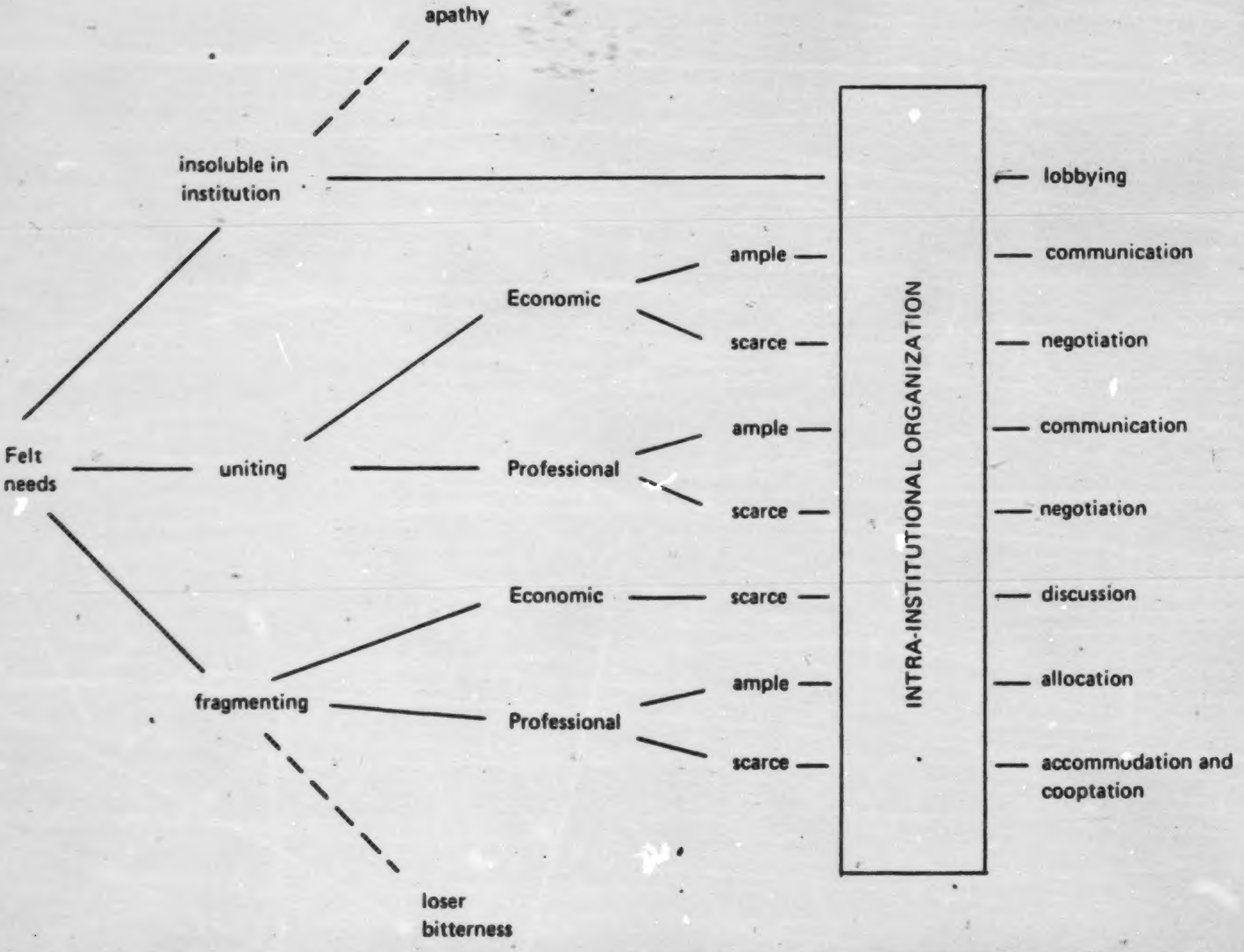
Thus far we have seen that various felt needs of individuals or groups stimulate attempts to satisfy the needs. The process of attempted satisfaction of needs can be healthy and constructive. It can also, however, become non-integrative or destructive if no solution can be discovered, or the solution is denied by a powerful adversary, or if the process deteriorates to a polarization and personal animosity prevails. The original needs might be categorized into purely economic issues (salaries and fringe benefits) and professional issues (e.g. decision making), although there might be disagreement on the categorization of many issues (e.g. class size). Then there are the issues which are affected by the relative scarcity of resources. Finally, there are the uniting versus the fragmenting issues. It is the contention of this author that one or more intra-institutional formal organizations can facilitate integrative conflict resolution in most, though not all, of the significant areas of conflict generation likely to be encountered within a community college. The various concepts presented above are graphically presented as a paradigm on page 122.

Thus, significant needs felt by an institution's members can be traced along some one of the paradigm's pathways. Integrative processes are represented by solid lines, non-integrative by broken lines. Let us say a need, perhaps increased state revenues, is determined to be insoluable within a given college. Designated college administrators regularly labor with this problem but, without solid manifestations of support from some other source, their efforts are simply one among multiple special pleadings, and their limited success often engenders, back on the campus, a spirit of resignation to external circumstances. On the other hand, organized support can be highly effective in such efforts, as various groups have found, both in concrete results and in the morale of those involved.

Following another example, when sufficient resources exist within the institution to meet either the economic or professional needs in which faculty are united, then the indicated process is simple communication, publishing the needs and solutions and processing individuals. Now it can be argued that

FIGURE 1

A PARADIGM FOR CONFLICT MANAGEMENT THROUGH INTRA-INSTITUTIONAL ORGANIZATION


apathy
insoluble in institution
lobbying
ample
communication
Economic
scarce
negotiation
ample
communication
Felt needs
uniting
Professional
scarce
negotiation
Economic
scarce
discussion
ample
allocation
fragmenting
Professional
scarce
accommodation and cooptation
loser bitterness
INTRA-INSTITUTIONAL ORGANIZATION

the simplest solution is best in any situation, normal administrative processing through, say, a personnel office in this example. But there is some rationale (beyond the elegance of a more complete model) for resorting to a formal intra-institutional organization, at least some of the time, even when more traditional channels of communication are also present. Nothing can be lost (remember we assumed ample resources) and much good will gained through enhanced communication of this nature. The concerns with which the organization deals can be leavened, and the organization better maintained, by conscious inclusion of the ample resource items in the mix.

Even a fragmenting, professional concern (for example, curriculum decisions in some situations), when there are ample resources can be much more suitably mediated to allocation of the resources (for example, multiple courses with substantial overlap) through an open airing of the concern than through individual action. Given the same example but with more limited resources (perhaps declining enrollment), resort to the organization should lead to a more sound accommodation than otherwise, with the added advantage of cooptation of the potentially dissident element.

By definition, and paradigm completeness notwithstanding, there are no fragmenting, economic issues where there are ample resources. But there may be numerous such issues when resources are scarce. The question of merit pay is a classic example. Discussion and perhaps recommendation can result as an integrative outcome; however, it is almost inevitable, given the parameters of the problem, that some loser bitterness will ensue.

The other situations subject to a perceived scarcity of resources remain to be dealt with. The economic concerns are easily perceived, except by old-line paternalistic administrators, as subject to collective negotiation. There are professional concerns, too, which become items for collective negotiation, sometimes as a result of autocratic administrators and sometimes from the aggressive efforts of a bargaining agent. (It should be understood at this point that, while terms such as "bargaining agent" and "collective negotiation" are ordinarily encountered only in the context of unionization, they need not be restricted to such a context.)

The argument to this point has been that needs of community college staff members can be categorized along three dimensions (four, if internal vs. external solution is considered) and that integrative conflict management can be more easily achieved through resorting to some sort of formal intra-institutional organization. In the next section will be found a description of some models of such organizations which have been encountered in various community colleges.

Model Organizations

While there may well be ways in which differences between the models which will be described here will seem much less apparent than some of their similarities, some five discrete types have been noted by this author. More than one type can be found on a particular campus, though the problems engendered by this coexistence merit further discussion.

A quite commonly found model of faculty organization is that which is derived from the twin ideals of democratic representation and professorial autonomy, the faculty senate. Patterned upon the similar organization encountered at the university level, this is an elected body of peers, whose mandate, make-up, and rules of operation are set forth in a constitution and by-laws. The question might legitimately be asked, by what right can such a group exist and be effective? One community college faculty senate constitution states, "(The Senate) is an instrument of the Faculty, created by the Faculty, as a more effective means of realizing Faculty aspirations and accomplishing Faculty purposes than would be expedient through deliberations by the whole Faculty." Another says, "The Faculty Senate functions under the provisions of ACR 48 and Title 5 of the California State Administrative Code, Sec. 131.6." Most faculty senates, however, fall somewhere between these examples, with a constitution hammered out by the professional staff and then legitimized through recognition by the administration and governing board of a particular institution. The orientation of a faculty senate is toward professionalization, and economic matters are considered usually only if some rationalization can be found. Thus, promotion procedures would be a suitable agenda item, but not the specific salary increases attendant upon promotion. Curriculum matters and various admission and graduation policies are customary topics. Voting membership is often restricted to full-time faculty members, though attendance at meetings and even speaking to issues is liberally permitted.

A second model is also professionally oriented. Chapters of the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), at least as such chapters were known prior to the adoption by AAUP of collective negotiations as a primary emphasis, would be the best examples of this model. A highly respected, national organization which served as the arbiter and watchdog of academic freedom, tenure, and the economic status of the profession, its local chapters were quite often passive until faced by some perceived threat in its special provinces. Membership was open to faculty and to administrators who taught at least half-time, though associate membership of other administrators was also welcome. Since the adoption of collective negotiations, the AAUP is less easy to differentiate from the next two models to be noted. Other professional organizations, though not of an all-inclusive nature, have also been found to impact upon a community college. Such organizations as the National League for Nursing or the National Council of Teachers of English, even without a local chapter structure have addressed themselves to issues such as teacher-student ratio and defense of professional autonomy in decision-making.

The third type of organization to be found at community colleges in many instances is a vestige of an earlier day when the college was linked to some degree with a local school system, and in many other instances is an outgrowth of contemporary faculty militancy. This is, of course, the local unit of the National Education Association (NEA). The NEA has a long history as a professional organization for all educators, with membership drawn largely from school systems and colleges of education. The national organization and strong state-level units promoted professional identity and drew membership through vigorous recruiting efforts at the local level, often strongly assisted by the encouragement of school administrators. The advent of negotiations and the rapid spread since 1960 has led to identification of separate units for teachers, non-academic staff, and administrators. Increased competition for recognition as a duly designated bargaining agent has broadened the scope of concerns from professional issues to the economic, indeed even to the point where it has been argued that all concerns are negotiable.

Much of the competition leading to this state of events has come from affiliates of the American Federation of Teachers (AFL-CIO), often identified as the AFT. This fourth model has from its inception been unequivocally a labor union. Almost all the locals of this model are AFT affiliates, though there are independent teacher unions and conceivably other national unions might seek recognition or the affiliation of the independents. Nationally, membership is restricted to those with a community of interest, and most of the locals are for teachers. When teachers unionize, their concerns are readily broadened from just the economic to include the professional and to deal with as broad a spectrum as that of the NEA.

A fifth model, more difficult to label than those just listed, can be found in many community colleges. At least one college titles the organization the College Forum, which might serve as an apt description of this model. Other schools have referred to their organization as a faculty association or an advisory committee system. In any case it is customary to provide for broader representation, invariably with administrators added to the faculty membership and often with non-instructional staff and students as well. The impetus and authority for the system often comes from high-level administrators. A system of standing and ad hoc committees to deal with concerns which might arise is the customary pattern. Both economic and professional concerns may be handled, although it is not unusual for such a system to coexist with a bargaining agent, in which case the forum customarily is restricted to consideration of the professional concerns.

Past and Future Effectiveness

One key to the effectiveness of any of the models cited is the receptivity of the administrators or members of governing boards with whom the organization must deal. One case in the writer's experience involved a college at which modest attempts to form a senate had been squelched by a president who regarded the move as a personal affront; a later president not only welcomed formation of a senate, but encouraged, assisted, and even served as temporary head of the group in its early months. Some colleges have either harassed the leadership of faculty organizations or recruited them to the administrative staff. In many cases, intense, hard-working, well-intentioned presidents are motivated on the one hand to involve an intra-institutional organization in the operation of the college, but at the same time unable to delegate issues of any substance to such a group on its own. There must be genuine openness, even in the adversary relationship of the bargaining table, or resentment will build. In such a case, it is only a matter of time before polarization rather than integrative conflict management will result.

A second key concept in organizational effectiveness is the attitude of the faculty an organization purports to represent. In the sense that, as contrasted with power, authority can be conferred only by the people affected (Blau and Scott, 1962), an organization would be ineffectual without the willingness of the faculty to submit its concerns to the group and to abide by the decisions of the group on its behalf. The feedback process is crucial in obtaining faculty support; observations of various groups at a number of community colleges indicate an almost direct relationship between the volume and quality of the communications flow and the support of the faculty for the organizations. At one college, practically no communication existed; one significant group accomplishment there was rejected through non-cooperation of the faculty, and a series of faculty interviews revealed an almost complete lack of knowledge of any of the group's other activities. At another college, the faculty was kept informed through meetings, printed releases, and referendums, and supported the organization in the face of administrative discouragement of the group. A third college had these techniques plus extensive press coverage of two strikes called by the faculty bargaining agent. It was interesting to note that the faculty senate and the AAUP chapter at that college communicated only through distribution of mimeographed minutes of their meetings. At still another college, the forum used an excellent periodical publication. Knowledge of and support for the forum was high. Another organization at the same college used dittoed bulletins and had a much lower level of support from the faculty.

The comments above imply competition for support between two or more intra-institutional organizations on one campus. It would seem that, initially at least, existing faculty organizations suffer when a new group appears. A reason for this may be that teachers are not able to subscribe wholeheartedly to more than one primary group of the same general type; allegiance may be indivisible. Of course, it is quite possible that a group comes into existence when an older organization loses, for whatever reason, the ability to represent the faculty in a meaningful way.

Some signs of accommodation of different organizations have been observed. Officers or representatives of one group have been known to sit as ex officio representatives in another group for the purpose of improved communication. Support for stands on various issues which one organization may have adopted has been voted by another organization. There have also been instances of a senate's formation or preservation being assured through a contract won in collective negotiations by a bargaining agent.

Those potential conflicts which are insoluble within the institution have already been discussed. The trend seems to be toward the extramural jurisdictions. A key, then, for resolution of these conflicts is the affiliation of local organizations with state-level, and perhaps national, organizations. Both the NEA and AFT are active at various state capitals, with the former having an edge at the present time. There may be a need to strengthen state-level professional organizations of community college representatives where they exist and organize them where they do not, in order to complement the state level bargaining type organizations as well as to assure that the particular concerns of the community colleges are met. There has been some concern expressed by community college teachers that their needs not be subordinated to those of other segments of education or organized labor. Some risk is attendant upon all of this shift to extramural locations for management of conflict, to which all parties should be sensitive. If the paradigm (Figure 1) is correct, then there is more potential for non-integrative apathy and correspondingly less opportunity for integrative conflict management in such a development.

Perhaps this paper should close on the constructive note which the author hopes has predominated throughout most of the paper. American higher education, of which the community college movement is an increasingly important segment, faces in the near and not-too-distant future some of the most trying times in its three-century existence. The halcyon days of limitless growth and non-critical support have passed, perhaps never to return. Future growth will be qualitative rather than quantitative, and rife with potential conflict. The measure of survival of a community college as a viable entity may well depend upon its success with conflict management, and that in turn upon the central role of an enlightened intra-institutional organization.

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CHAPTER NINE

COMMUNITY COLLEGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The development of a community college associate degree curriculum typically requires numerous steps in being moved from its initiation to its implementation. Much of what occurs in the development of a program is set by the ideology held by the developer(s) of what the community college is or should be. The curriculum is the vehicle by which the community college delivers its resources. The following chapter is arranged according to several topical areas:

1. Community College Curriculum: What Is It About?
2. Stages in Community College Curriculum Development
3. Some Issues Surrounding Curriculum Development

Some of the pertinent philosophical bases will be presented in the first section.

COMMUNITY COLLEGE CURRICULUM: WHAT IS IT ABOUT?

B. Lamar Johnson has suggested that curriculum in the community college is the "sum total of planned student experiences in the classroom, in the laboratory, in the shop, in the library, and also in the clubroom, the counseling interview, the student council, and in the work-study program." (7:40) Johnson's discussion is aimed at student change and implies a relationship with instruction. The "deliberate practice of instruction" as Arthur Cohen speaks of it in DATELINE '79: Heretical Concepts of the Community College links teacher accountability and service to the community. Cohen states that the rationale developed in his book is "that of the college as a learning institution, directly accountable for student change. That purpose itself is subordinate to the college as an agency of community transformation." (3.138) Accepting the views of Johnson and Cohen, there is a relationship among curriculum, instruction, and the community which suggests direction for the curriculum.

In accepting such a rationale for curriculum and instruction in the community college, an approach to the curriculum as intimately linked to the community is implied. "Community transformation" implies that curriculum designers will not only be knowledgeable about the community but that the curriculum will undergo change as it is constantly adapted to the transformation occurring in the community. Cohen has stated that

> Probably the most pervasive myth surrounding the curriculum is that the junior college is an open system that channels the needs of the community into curricular design. It is true that changes may occur in response to changed student populations and community pressures, but these changes tend to be made only within the constraint of what is essentially a closed system of marks, methods, prerequisites, transfer requirements, and the campus itself. (3:82)

Elsewhere, Cohen stated that "If the curriculum is to be built indigenously by each institution (and it is difficult to conceive of a valid contrary position), there must be a consistent base from which to work." (3:43). In order to build such an indigenous curriculum, an expert on explaining community needs and resources who has a position in the organization structure to effect curriculum change must be available. He must be able to translate community needs and resources into curriculum responses. There is generally in the community college a lack of real attention to community needs. Blocker underlined the relative disregard of individuals in the community as well as community organizations by community college administrators and faculty members who design curriculum. Referring to a study of 663 administrators and faculty members in five branch colleges and nine community colleges, Blocker, et al., stated that:

> All groups mentioned community organizations and individuals but ranked them substantially lower than the other categories listed (as determinants on the curriculum)...The fact that all groups ranked community organizations and individuals well down on the list holds some interesting implications for the concept of the two-year college as a community centered institution. (1:205)

Although the authors do not discuss the implications, it seems that for many colleges the concept of the community college as an institution committed to community needs may only be a rhetorical device.

Max Raines, Michigan State University, Professor of Higher Education, and Dr. Gunder Myran have suggested that

> There is a leadership crisis in community oriented education today, and faculties will need in-service experiences so that changing community needs can have an impact on changing what happens in the classroom...At the same time, the community services staff is an essential component in a community-oriented college. As a center for the study of changing community educational needs, it will be a valuable source of information both for the college and for the community itself. As an initiator of curricular innovation, it will provide short-term programs to meet emerging needs which may spin-off into formal programs within the college as the need stabilizes. (10:49)

Myran has noted in Community Services in the Community College that

> A commitment to community services and sensitivity to community problems and potential should permeate all areas of the college...Community services then becomes the focal point through which (1) administrators, teachers, and students become more sensitive and responsive to ways in which the resources of the college can be used in the community, and (2) increased knowledge of the community and its needs results in curricular changes which make the entire program of the college more relevant to the community it services. (16:17-18)

Although Raines and Myran have suggested some directions for the development of the curriculum, the specific manner in which their generalizations should be brought about are not discussed. There is some question whether the community college curriculum has an adequately defined function. John Goodlad has pointed out that we have expectations that all phases of education would have a single organizational pattern, viz, around the disciplines. He implied that the community college phase of education might well be organized in terms of societal problems and the curriculum of the university could be organized according to disciplines. Goodlad asked

> Should the student during the junior college phase be primarily contributing to the culture? Should we be organizing the curriculum of the junior college around the disciplines? Around the problems of earning a job? Around special interests? Should we be providing each student at the junior college level with some special competence, art or music or literature or some other? (9:24)

If a community orientation is assumed for the community college, then answers to some of Goodlad's questions are implied. It seems that the special contribution the community college can make is in terms of a unique curriculum.

The question remains whether many persons in community college leadership positions accept the view that a legitimate curriculum can be based on the needs of the community. Moreover, the community college has felt the pressure of the four-year institution regarding the transfer curriculum. Historically, community college curricula have evolved from the transfer curriculum to vocational and technical curricula, and then, the development of other curricula. Thus, many community colleges have attempted to reproduce the courses of the colleges and universities to which students were likely to transfer. Now, contrary to B. Lamar Johnson's sentiment expressed in The Improvement of Junior College Instruction, that "as a young institution, relatively unhampered by the heavy hand of tradition, the junior college has a special opportunity to take leadership in change, innovation, and experimentation in American education," (9:5) the community college is becoming bogged down in a tradition that is making curricula change difficult.

Matthew Miles pointed out in his opening essay of Innovation in Education that in the American Educational System "Downward influences are exerted not only on the curricula of the lower schools, via college entrance requirements but on their teaching staffs and their social and intellectual climates as well." (14:31) This comment applies quite well to the community college where the community college faculty is often times concerned with creating the impression of a senior college and where it emulates the senior college faculty,itself so ill-prepared to teach. Thus, the content of the curricula is often geared to transferability and not to the needs of the students or to the community as the community college rhetoric suggests it should be. Graduate departments then often serve as the "capstones of the formal structure, and control the levels below them in various ways...For each of the lower levels, the requirements of the upper level are taken as given, and any adjustment must be made by the lower level" (14:595) But must this be the case? How can an orientation by an institution to the community alter this situation?

The community college has been commissioned in many statewide systems of higher education to identify community (usually defined in terms of a geo-political unit such as a county) educational and quasi-educational needs and to develop appropriate curricular responses. Without abandoning the values of a university transfer curriculum, new articulation processes might be established in order that unique curricula will be transferred. While there is still a lack of sophistication in determining community needs, the community colleges have usually been given significant flexibility to develop a wide range of programmatic responses. Such programs may range in level from a non-credit, one-meeting program for a particular target population to a full two-year credit program.

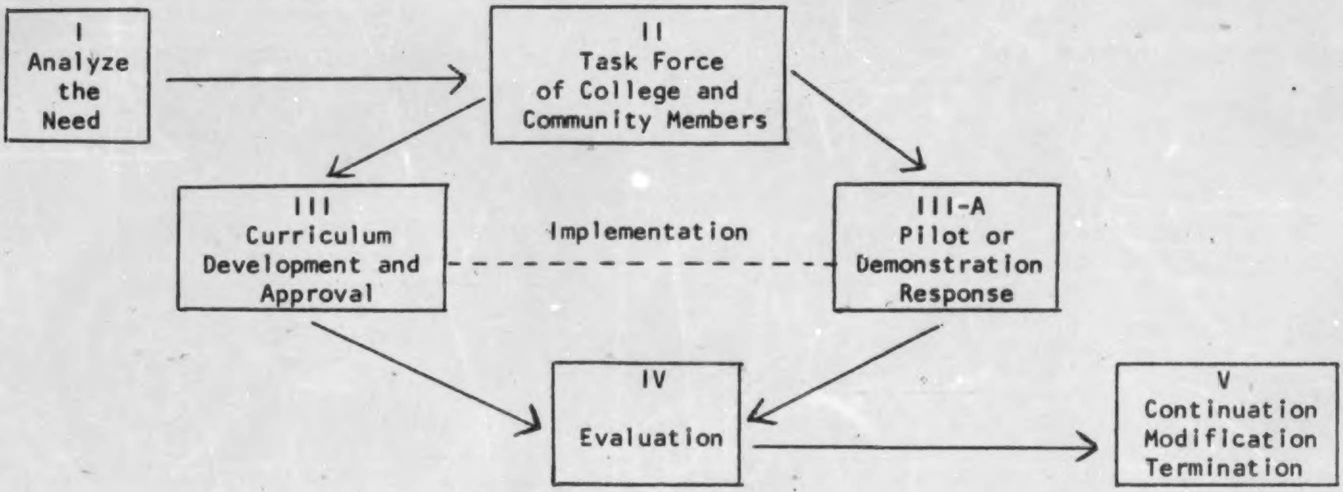
For each level of program whether it is a noncredit, single meeting, or a 36-credit or less certificate, or a full two-year program, there are a number of steps which are taken in the development and approval of such a program. A typical process will be presented in the next section of this chapter.

PROCESS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

There are five major stages in the typical development of a curriculum of a community college. They are as follows:

1. Perceive the need
2. Establish a Task Force (and develop the curriculum)
3. Implement the curriculum (possible Pilot or Demonstration Curriculum)
4. Evaluation
5. Continuation, Modification, or Termination (see Figure 1)

Figure 1: Sequence of Stages in Community College Curriculum Development


I
Analyze the Need
II
Task Force of College and Community Members
III
Curriculum Development and Approval
Implementation
III-A
Pilot or Demonstration Response
IV
Evaluation
V
Continuation
Modification
Termination

Each of the stages typically involves a number of steps. Throughout the developmental process, a number of issues at the heart of community college education are likely to be encountered. Some of those will be discussed in a subsequent section.

Stages in Community College Curriculum Development

1. Need Analysis:

While there are yet few community colleges which have a systematic and comprehensive approach to Community Need Analysis as it leads to curriculum development, most colleges have at least some minimal formal structures which provide the basis for the identification of community needs and subsequent curriculum development. A systematic approach to a Need Analysis might involve such mechanisms as the use of written surveys, door-to-door interviews, critical path analysis (a community development approach) and other mechanisms. Such a process would be based on available demographic, employment and university transfer data.

At the outset of such an analysis, the community is likely to be conceptualized in terms of various categories. For example, there may be several different socio-economic levels within a service area--each with different educational needs. There are likely to be a host of voluntary and social service agencies with some common educational needs. The professions, the businesses, and the industries are likely to have various educational needs which may admit to response by the community college. A comprehensive and sytematic approach to a needs analysis would imply an analysis of the community in such a way that every individual in the service area would fit into some category. Consonant with the aims and goals for the community college, those constituents who appear as having top priority needs to which the community college should respond would receive the attention of a curriculum response.

Very often a systematic and comprehensive approach to Need Analysis does not occur. An apparently obvious educational need may be presented by a particularly vocal constituency to the college as requiring the immediate attention of the college. An idea by a faculty person, administrator, or some person outside the college may capture the attention and interest of enough people in order that it may be successfully moved to implementation. Such informal approaches may lead to the development of very successful programs. However, it is not always clear how some of the programs so developed always fit into the goals and aims set by the college.

2. Task Force

The development of the task force is an important though sometimes omitted step in securing expertise available to the college. Although the establishment of a task force is not generally required in the development of a new program, it is generally used in order to involve appropriate segments of the community. Faculty members who have expertise in a particular area, along with persons from the broader community who are likely to hire graduates from the program to be developed, are often asked to serve on the task force. Sometimes a representative from the college information office, as well as an appropriate dean (Career or Transfer) will be a part of the task force.

The task force under the direction of the appropriate dean (it may be a Dean of Instruction, Dean of Community Services, Dean of Career Education, or some other person) will be commissioned by the college to develop a program proposal. The proposal will typically include a statement of need, design of curriculum response, indication of faculty and facilities needed, a timetable, a statement describing the target population, and some indication of cost.

3. Curriculum Development and Approval

The curriculum response designed by the task force may take the shape of a single, noncredit short course, a full associate degree program or something in between. It may take the shape of a workshop, conference, or symposium; and it may be taught off-campus, or on campus at an outreach center or at a business or industrial site. The faculty may be a part of the full-time faculty or they may be adjunct faculty, identified from the broader community as persons who have expertise in a given area.

Various types of curriculum will require different levels of authorization depending upon such factors as whether it is a credit or noncredit program and if it is a credit program how many credits are involved. In some states, noncredit short courses may require Board of Trustee approval but not the State Board or Commission of Higher Education approval. Most states require college Board of Trustee approval and Board of Higher Education approval for new associate degree programs. While there are variations, the typical review and approval process prior to the implementation of an associate degree program requires the following steps:

A. College Level:

1. Approval by the Academic Dean and College Academic Council;
2. Recommendation of the College President to the College Board of Trustees for approval of the program;
3. Board of Trustee approval.

b. State Level:

1. Statewide Curriculum Coordinating Committee (usually a committee comprised of community college presidents or designates);
2. Statewide Advisory Council(s) or Consultant (oftentimes a review by specialists as in technical programs, law education, or health-related programs is needed);
3. Department of Higher Education Academic Council (recommendation of Chancellor or Commissioner of Higher Education);
4. Approval of the Board of Higher Education.

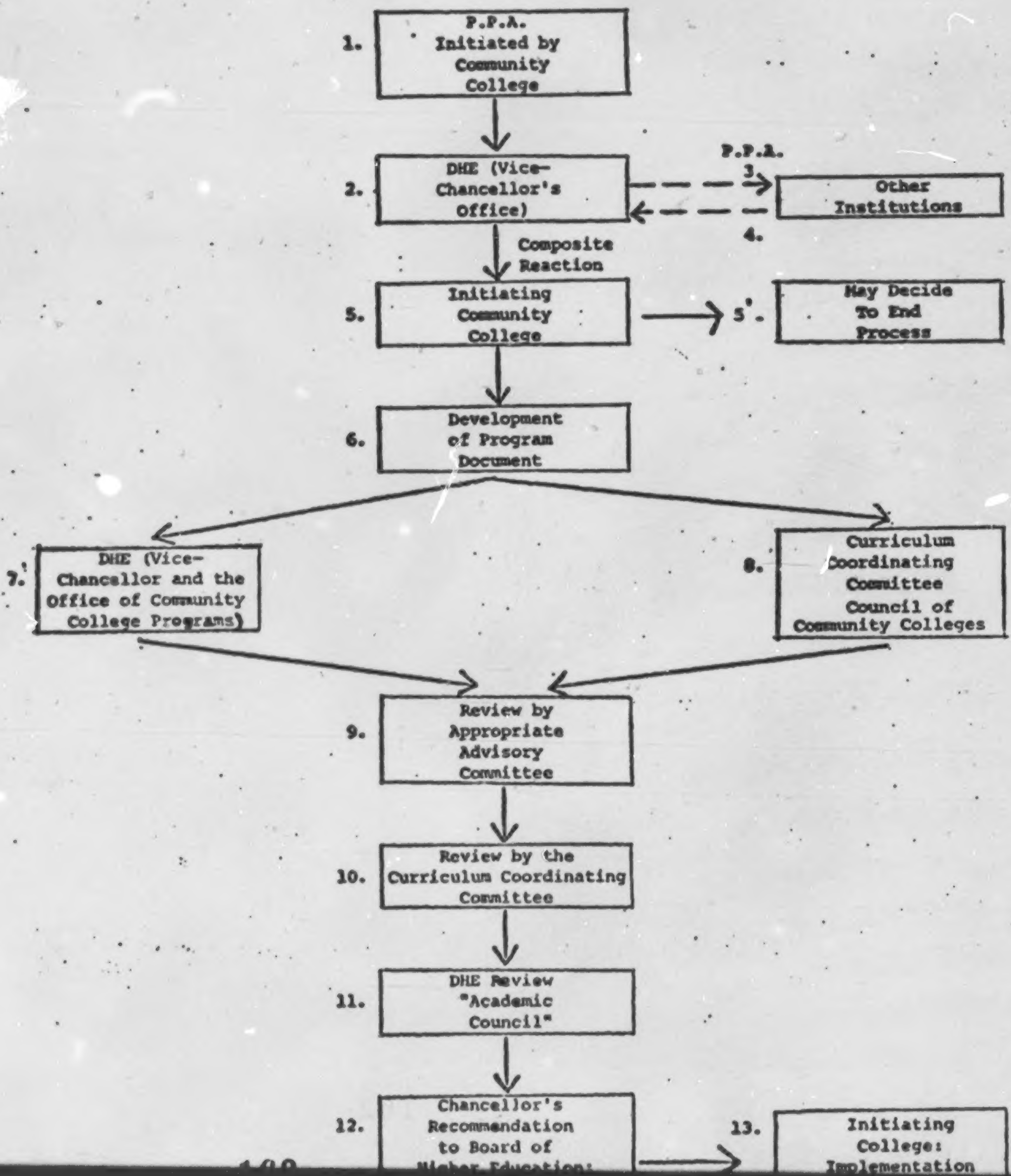
A college may take preliminary action in developing a curriculum prior to getting Board of Trustee approval. Subsequent steps require College Board approval. (See Figure 2) A typical process is described below and outlined in Figure 2. A Preliminary Program Announcement (PPA) which may be some brief statement outlining the program and the need for it is sent to the State Office for Higher Education in order to give notice of intent to offer a program and in order to solicit preliminary reactions from the Department of Higher Education and other higher educational institutions throughout the state. A composite reaction to the PPA which may indicate encouragement or discouragement is returned to the institution initiating the PPA. This step is generally undertaken as a part of the Program Document Development Process and therefore precedes college Board of Trustee approval.

If the initiating college decides to develop a program document in order to go before the State Board or Commission of Higher Education, it must secure approval from its own Board of Trustees. Once institutional approval is received, the program document is sent to both the Department of Higher Education (Office of Community College Programs) and to the membership of what might be called the Curriculum Coordinating Committee.

A description of a Curriculum Coordinating Committee would be appropriate here. In New Jersey the Council of Community Colleges is established by State statute. The Council has a membership comprised of the Chairpersons of all of the Community Colleges,Boards of Trustees and the President of all of the Community Colleges. The Council has a number of standing committees of which the Curriculum Coordinating Committee is one. The Committee reports to the Council in order that the Council may fulfill its statutory function to review all new community college degree programs. There are seven voting members of the Committee. Six are Community College presidents

Figure 2

COMMUNITY COLLEGE ACADEMIC PROGRAM APPROVAL PROCESS


1.
P.P.A.
Initiated by
Community
College
2.
DHE (Vice-
Chancellor's
Office)
P.P.A.
3.
Other
Institutions
4.
Composite
Reaction
5.
Initiating
Community
College
5'.
May Decide
To End
Process
6.
Development
of Program
Document
7.
DHE (Vice-
Chancellor and the
Office of Community
College Programs)
8.
Curriculum
Coordinating
Committee
Council of
Community Colleges
9.
Review by
Appropriate
Advisory
Committee
10.
Review by the
Curriculum Coordinating
Committee
11.
DHE Review
"Academic
Council"
12.
Chancellor's
Recommendation
to Board of
Higher Education:
13.
Initiating
College:
Implementation

and one is a Board of Trustee member. The Committee is staffed by a representative from the Office of Community College Programs of the New Jersey Department of Higher Education. Most states have a similar formal or informal Council.

The State Department of Higher Education staff person to the Curriculum Coordinating Committee typically works on behalf of the Committee to forward program proposals to an appropriate advisory committee. A consultant may be hired to review a program if no advisory committee is appropriate. The Curriculum Coordinating Committee will receive recommendations from a particular advisory committee in its area of expertise. The Health Professions Education Advisory Committee, for example, may recommend that a program be approved, but the Curriculum Coordinating Committee has a perspective on the exigencies of a college operation that it may return a program to the initiating college for reasons of organization, cost, regionalization concerns, duplication with another college's efforts or for some other reasons.

While a Chancellor or Commissioner of Higher Education does not technically receive the recommendations of a Curriculum Coordinating Committee, the Committee's recommendation is considered in his review of the program. Analogous to the Curriculum Coordinating Committee perspective to that of an Advisory Council, the Department of Higher Education has a broader perspective of the totality of higher education in the state than that of the Curriculum Coordinating Committee. Hence, a program document might be returned to an institution for further development for reasons of overlap with some other higher educational institution. It may be that a Chancellor or Commissioner would choose not to recommend a program because of an extremely high student cost ratio or some other factor. (In such an instance, the college may opt to go directly before the Board of Higher Education without a Chancellor's recommendation. Such a procedure, however, is most unlikely.)

Assuming a satisfactory result at the Department of Higher Education Academic Council review process, the Chancellor makes a recommendation to the Board of Higher Education. With Board of Higher Education approval, the college is granted the authority to implement the specified program and award degrees in the designated curriculum area.

3. A. Pilot or Demonstration Response

In many instances a college would prefer to begin some portion of a program in order to examine some of the difficulties without undertaking a totally new program. The implementation of a certificate program which is 36 credit hours or less in New Jersey does not require Board of Higher Education approval but does require notification, for information purposes, to the Curriculum Coordinating Committee and to the Chancellor of Higher Education. Either the Chancellor or the Curriculum Coordinating Committee may exercise the prerogative to require a full program review if it appears warranted. In order for the community colleges to retain their flexibility and ability to respond in short order, minimal requirements for approval with the caveat that all programs may be reviewed is most appropriate.

4. Evaluation

Student follow-up studies, faculty observation, student observations as well as consultant reports may provide components for an evaluation of a program underway. The college accepts the responsibility for offering programs which are consistent with the authority to grant degrees in areas approved by the Board of Higher Education as a college described to the Board of Higher

Education in a particular proposal. The Department of Higher Education, as the arm of the Board, is required to evaluate programs and colleges in order to insure that educational opportunity as specified by various colleges is being provided.

Evaluation of programs both from within the college and from outside of the college is yet in a developmental state. Degree of sophistication varies from state to state and from college to college. Individual colleges have been doing more with follow-up studies particularly as positions in Institutional Research have received greater legitimacy. The Departments of Higher Education are aware of the need to do more in the way of monitoring and evaluating programs in operation without impeding responsive programming.

5. Continuation, Modification, or Termination

Based on reactions developed to a Pilot, Demonstration, or Full Program, a program may be continued as is, Modified or Terminated.

SOME ISSUES

Community Resources and Needs

It is most consistent with the community college approach for community colleges to identify educational resources as well as educational needs in a community. The community college may function most effectively in some instances by acting as a coordinating agent which matches needs to resources which are already available in a community. The provision of such service may, in some instances, involve adapting the existing resource in order to respond to a need more effectively.

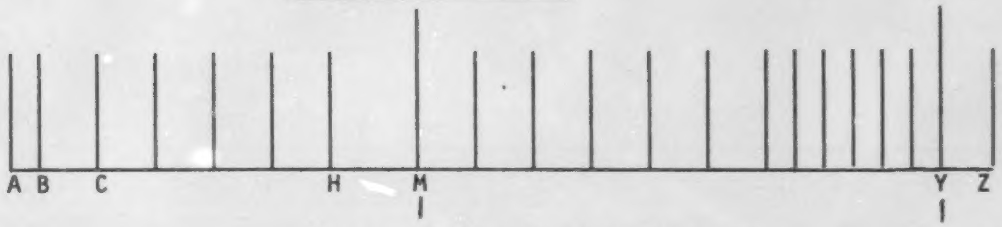
In providing educational service to the community, the community college may serve merely as an informational resource in linking needs to noncredit courses already offered. In other cases, it may be that a course or program being offered outside of the college may be enhanced by offering the course or program in cooperation with the community college with community college credit provided.

Agency Contract

When a business, industry, or some other agency is providing an educational resource, it may be doing so for any number of reasons. A presumed major reason is the identification and development of personnel who would fill positions in the business or industry. Operating apart from the community college, the agency would be expected to identify persons who demonstrate potential for achieving agency purposes. Thus, on a competency continuum (see Chart 1) regarding any given skill or task, an agency might identify point "Y" as the point in competency needed to enter a position in a given business or industry. Persons who demonstrate competence at a level marked point "M" on the continuum would not be considered for the program.

Figure 3

Competency Continuum



Minimum Competence Level
for demonstrating poten-
tial for entering a pro-
gram offered by an agency
outside the community
college

Level of Com-
petence neede
to enter a po
ition in a
business or
industry

Regarding admissions to higher educational programs, Arthur Chickering asked in the title of an article several years ago, "Are Our Best Institutions Doing the Least?" Referring to some of our more prestigious universities and colleges in the country, he suggested that many students who enter such institutions have already achieved a level of learning or an ability to learn that at the end of a prescribed time the students would either have grown very little, or they would have grown despite the institution's efforts. On the other hand, Chickering pointed out that the less prestigious colleges and universities (including community colleges), with less stringent admissions criteria were taking students from low points on a learning continuum and advancing them a considerable distance. The latter institutions were not as likely to rule out students prior to entry into the institution. The former institutions did rule out many students with a resulting greater guarantee of "success" among those who remained ("success" meaning that students would achieve a predetermined point on an achievement continuum.) That point was, of course, in reach of most such students without the intercession of the institution.

The cooperation of an agency and a community college in offering an educational program would presumably lead to a fuller learning program for students selected for an agency program. Additional courses, student service programs, and other facilities available at a college would serve to enhance the learning opportunities for persons entering an agency educational program. There is merit in encouraging cooperation between an agency and a community college on the grounds that learning opportunities for persons in the agency program would be enhanced. By the same token, there are some implications which should be considered.

The Community College Approach

In a contract between a community college and an outside agency (e.g., American Institute of Banking) where the outside agency continues to offer a program of instruction essentially as it was prior to the contract, assurance of a commitment to the community college approach needs to be made. Central to the development of the community college as an alternate form of education is the proposition that for various reasons certain students were unable to gain as much as they might have gained from primary and secondary school experiences. The community college represents a commitment of resources to persons who may have social, psychological, financial and/or other kinds of impediments to learning. By configuring its resources in unique patterns, the community college attempts to enhance the self-concept of the individual who may have a very low demonstration capacity on a given Competency Continuum such as the one discussed above.

Central to the nature of the commitment of the community college is an expression of trust in the learner which promotes a positive self-image. Nevertheless, the community college must take care not to lead students to self-deluding experiences. The community college student who has been attracted by the "open-door" must not become fodder for the "revolving door." Once into the institution, the student must have accessibility to the programs. Support systems for community college students are often necessary to the development of positive self-images. Programs of instruction which are offered through the community college must be available and accessible to students who enter the college. This is so because a student orientation rhetorically claimed by the community college implies that it be so. It does not mean that a program offered by a contracting agency should not meet competency objectives. It does mean that potential for fitting into a job-slot where a minimum of student growth ("M" to "Y" on the continuum) is required is an inappropriate measure in and of itself for admission to a community college program.

Implications for Contracting

It may be the case that a contracting agency would comply with the community college approach of making a program available to a broad constituency of students. Under a misconception of upholding standards, faculty who were being monitored by the contracting agency could "cool out" (a la Burton Clark) the very students for whom the community college may make a difference. In good faith, the "cooling out" would be implemented by faculty interested in admitting students below the "M" competency level. Hence, it is essential that the community college ensure that a student development approach (with a learner-orientation) be made while providing some response to a business or industry. Standards may be maintained while, at the same time, having students stretch to achieve those standards. It is the very process of admitting students who are below the competency level "M" that the community college claims to have a role in aiding to move to "Y" on the competency continuum. The faculty who enter into arrangements with a community college as a part of a contract should be aware of the different thrust of the program as it falls under the community college aegis. Moreover, they should be made aware that there may be a need to examine curriculum configurations to meet the needs of students who did not make the cut-off point on the competency continuum.

Recommendations

The contracting of learning programs between a community college and an agency outside of the college points out the special need for workshops, courses, and other professional development programs for potential faculty to become aware of the community college approach and to be able to implement the approach in the appropriate learning environment. The need for providing professional development programs for potential faculty in contracting programs is not peculiar. Such programs are essential for adjunct faculty, new faculty and even for senior faculty. Developing faculty sensitivity and awareness to the unique needs of community college students is a program which is pertinent to the Curriculum Development Process.

Equally important is the notion of developing curricula responses which address students and community educational needs at their present levels. There should be an unswerving commitment to high standards while offering programmatic responses aimed to aid the community-at-large achieve them. The process of curriculum development and implementation should be streamlined in order that the community college may ensure a learner-oriented, student-development model to curriculum development. While businesses and industries may express certain educational needs to the community college, the colleges must be certain that curricula provide accessibility while maintaining standards without selecting students out according to some arbitrary business or industry pre-education requirement.

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CHAPTER TEN

THE VALUE OF OCCUPATIONAL AND LIBERAL ARTS EDUCATION IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The intensity of the discussions, both emotional and logical, across this nation concerning the value of occupational and liberal arts education is now in a critical stage. Professional journals abound in these discussions and nationally distributed magazines are carrying lead articles on liberal arts and career education, vocational education and occupational education.

All these discussions and debates enable one to realize that forces for change have been initiated. The citizens of this country, educators and non-educators, are questioning these proposed or inferred changes. Changes that might be of the magnitude used to describe the ascent of man -- he has begun a journey into a destiny from which he cannot return.

The first question that should be asked about the value of occupational and liberal arts education is "Is there any value?" The only value that may logically be determined is the occupational and liberal arts education are a means to an end. This end is to have a life that is satisfactory to the individual and to the society in which the individual lives.

One can probe deeply into the meaning of life. To some "getting ahead" is the meaning of life. Few people ask, "Getting ahead of what?" For many preparation for an after life is the purpose of this life. What you do for making a living is evaluated as being of no importance. To others helping people to have a better life in this world is the ultimate meaning of life.

Whatever way one defines life, we do spend our lives in a society, the American society, in which the individual is still considered important, and even sacred. It is a sad situation for these individuals to be able to earn a living and not enjoy life. On the other hand, it is very frustrating for individuals educated to enjoy life yet incapable of earning a decent living.

It should be stressed that the human society consists of five institutions that evolved over millions of years. These institutions are family, education, government, economy and religion. The individual, it can be assumed, must be able to function within each of these institutions. In addition to these human institutions are the physical surroundings which the individual must recognize and maintain for survival.

Another question that occurs is, "Why is the question, -- the value of occupational and liberal arts education? Why have these been separated into two such separate identities? Why have educators separated knowledge to such a point that we are quoted making such statements as did Donald Barr, headmaster of Dalton School, Manhattan, N.Y., "Courses in 'life adjustment' -- driver safety, consumer education -- should be reserved for those children whose innate abilities are such that they can do nothing with life but adjust to it...(6:39). With 46,000 people killed last year in automobile accidents it seems everyone should have this education. And consumer education! How can any intelligent person say only one segment of society should be taught consumer practice? Mr. Barr should not be singled out. Educators and editorial writers of our nation's major papers are standing in line to make such statements.

I hypothesize that we have not given a liberalizing education -- one which allows enjoyment of life and the ability to earn a decent living. We have taught them one without the other. To emphasize this hypothesis, consider the following questions. Why are so many persons displeased with their jobs -- or life? Suicide rates are not low. Why is there so much seeking to escape, divorce, destruction of the land? Why do so many people sit in front of television sets and watch programs and advertisements that insult a six year old's intelligence?

The Royal Bank of Canada publishes a newsletter. They have captured the essence of education for each person.

> Education is a lifelong pursuit. Whatever a person does in life demands preparation, and since everyday is a new day with new requirements he needs to face every dawn with renewed qualifications.
>
> Education is not something that goes on for a certain number of years until it is capped by a graduation ceremony, whereupon it ends forever. An advertisement for Great Books has an illustration representing a gravestone on which is inscribed: "Here lies the mind of John Doe, who at age 30 stopped thinking (13:1)."

REDIRECTION FOR EDUCATION

Prior to and during World War II there was considerable effort to design the future of liberal arts education. Of these efforts the Harvard Report seems prominent. James B. Conant in introducing the reader to the purpose of the Harvard Report, General Education in a Free Society, wrote:

> The heart of the problem of a general education is the continuance of the liberal and humane tradition. Neither the mere acquisition of information nor the development of special skills and talents can give the broad basis of understanding which is essential if our civilization is to be preserved. No one wishes to disparage the importance of being 'well informed.' But even a good grounding in mathematics and the physical and biological science, combined with an ability to read and write several foreign languages, does not

> provide a sufficient educational background for citizens of a free country. For such a program lacks contact with both man's emotional experience as an individual and his practical experience as a gregarious animal. It includes little of what was once known as 'the wisdom of the ages,' and might nowadays be described as 'our cultural pattern.' It includes no history, no art, no literature, no philosophy. Unless the educational process includes at each level of maturity some continuing contact with those fields in which value judgments are of prime importance, it must fall short of the ideal. The student in high school, in college and in graduate school must be concerned, in part at least with the words 'right' and 'wrong' in both the ethical and the mathematical sense.
>
> There is nothing new in such educational goals; what is new in this century in the United States is their application to a system of universal education (24:1X).
>
> Conant wrote further, "...., today we are concerned with a general education -- a liberal education -- not for the relatively few, but for a multitude (24:1X)."

The Harvard Committee in 1945 recognized that liberal arts education as they viewed it traditionally was not sufficient for the present day. They wrote:

> .... we spoke (earlier) of the importance of shop training for students who intend to go into scientific or technological work. Such experience is important for the general education of all. Most students who expect to go to college are now offered an almost wholly verbal type of preparatory training, while hand training and the direct manipulation of objects are mainly reserved for the vocational fields. This is a serious mistake. The bookish student needs to know how to do things and make things as much as do those students who do not plan to take further intellectual training (24:175).

The Harvard Committee was speaking about the secondary school. I believe the same is true of any level of a person's education. The Harvard Committee inferred this when they stated, "The lack of shop training is at present (and still is in 1975) a most serious deterrent to entry into all types of technological work and to college and post graduate training in science, medicine and engineering (24:160)."

The Harvard Committee was handicapped in its analysis of the inclusion of the technological aspects into a person's education because of the members' unfamilarity with technology. Basically they knew it was important for all persons' education but they were unable to conceptualize a plan for the technological aspects within a liberal education.

DEFINITION

It may be clear to you now that I include occupational or vocational education as a part of a liberal arts education. While some persons may not agree with this concept, it is the same concept as that of the American Vocational Association. Within this Association there are fifteen divisions ranging from agriculture and business to industrial arts and technical education. These divisions within the AVA have not lost their identity and are stronger due to their being a part of the AVA. Occupational education is necessary for all persons and is, therefore, inescapably a part of liberal arts.

To illustrate this necessary alliance, on more than one occasion an occupational or vocational educator has indicated that if the students were shifted to a technical institute the students could be taught the correct attitudes for living. An examination of the curricula of these institutes revealed no plans to teach attitudes. There were few or no socializing activities. I am sure that important attitudes toward work are taught, yet, work attitudes are only a part of the attitudes a person needs for life.

LIBERAL ARTS UNDER ATTACK

Liberal arts education is in trouble.

Garland Parker (1974) observed, "With rising educational cost factors, the sponsorship of the liberal arts, that allegedly do not prepare students to "do anything," has increasingly been questioned. Students deriving from the disadvantaged and minority groups generally elect career education options that will provide job assurance first and pursue the humanities later, if at all (463)." The present economic situation has accented the students' attitudes. "Confronted by hard times, today's college graduates are heading for the world of work with new priorities - a job first, 'relevance' second (3:44-45)."

Kenneth G. Gehret, Education editor of The Christian Science Monitor, wrote, "U.S. higher education appears to be shifting toward putting job training ahead of a liberal education. Is it practical reform or a lapse into educational mediocrity (8:F3)."

James Hitchcock, a nationally known highly regarded historian, St. Louis University discussed Liberal Arts and Their Economics in 1972.

> When the smoke of campus battles finally clears, the most distinguished casualty within the university's rank is likely to be the traditional liberal arts (11:69).

Hitchcock states further:

> It is essentially perspective which the liberal arts have always sought to provide and, with perspective, tolerance (11:72).
>
> . . . the best long-term guarantee of a humane social consciousness may lie in a broad, theoretical, apparently "useless" education which nonetheless gives the student a perspective which can lead to tolerance and sympathy (11:73).

Can persons in occupational education claim that an occupational education gives a person a "humane social consciousness"? An analysis of history reveals that this is not so. An occupational education does give a person the attitudes to succeed in work - and, also, the technological skills to obtain entry level employment. But a social consciousness? Probably not!

Possibly one of the symptoms of the times which indicates persons who have lost their perspective of life is the workaholic.

The workaholic "drops out of the human community, . . .and eats, drinks and sleeps his job (12:42)."

CHANGING LIBERAL ARTS AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

Forces for change were mentioned earlier. What are some of the forces/concepts for change? U.S. Commissioner of Education, Terrell Bell, speaking to the Council of Small Private Colleges, January 15, 1975, stated:

> To send young men and women into today's world armed only with Aristotle, Freud, and Hemmingway is like sending a lamb into the lion's den. It is to delude them as well as ourselves. But if we give young men and women a useful skill, we give them not only the means to earn a good living, but also the opportunity to do something constructive and useful in our society.
>
> We need to liberalize vocational education (and educators) and vocationalize liberal education (and educators). In the process we will attain the full purpose of education.

In Newsnotes of the Phi Delta Kappan Journal (18) it was reported that the Federal Government is creating ten centers to become operational in the 1975-76 school year. The purpose of the centers is to provide career selection and exploration information. The rationale for such action is the government's interest "in breaking down the barriers between the educational specialists who run the schools and the corporations and unions concerned with jobs in the real world, (438)." HEW Secretary, Casper Weinberger indicated ". . . We certainly have no plan . . . to eliminate or reduce the amount of time in school that is spent on the humanities and on the basic courses of education that have ben developed over the years (438)."

Sidney Marland, former U.S. Commissioner of Education reported:

> In an attempt to create a level of compatibility between the liberal arts education and vocational education, Columbia University is making changes in its instructional approaches. The changes are designed to bring academicians and vocationalists into harmony with each other. The effort is based on the rationale that there is no one liberal education which can be given to all students to satisfy the demand for "What every student ought to know (15:218)."

Gehret after examining the plans of The Carnegie Corporation to invest five million into increasing the practicality of the liberal arts, the Mellon Foundation and various authorities in education concluded:

> The liberal arts once were considered the cornerstone of preparation for a well-rounded, satisfying life and for citizenship in a democracy. The same argument can still be made. Added to that now is the contention that getting ahead in a career, even in a technological society, demands a broader background than limited job knowledge and skills.
>
> If it is true, as authorities predict, that the average American will change jobs every seven years in the decades ahead, then the ability to adjust to new situations would appear to be a valid argument for broad preparation for work and life.
>
> A blending of the liberal arts with career education, rather than conflict between them for student loyalties, could be the wave of the future on U.S. Campuses (8:F-3).

Samuel Maczko summarized the situation which occupational and liberal arts educators face and must solve:

> The combining of liberal arts and occupational education into one concept is the message of career education at the post-secondary level. The contemporary youngsters of today desire to become usefully employed and financially independent in life, and they are seeking to accomplish this in a time when employers want technically competent employees and the job market is tight. The perpetuation of the dichotomy between academic and vocational education will not solve the problems of education (14:4).

PUBLIC OPINION

The agents for change seem to be at the Federal Government level. What are the attitudes of the public?

An example of a public opinion poll was done for the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction by the University of Illinois Survey Research Laboratory (Greenville Advocate, June 4, 1974). In answer to the question, "What should be the most important goal of public education?" the reply rated first overall by students and adults was "to encourage a positive attitude toward learning."

Career and vocational education were rated top overall as deserving more money by the general public, public opinion leaders, school board members, school administrators, teachers and students. However, the goal of "providing opportunities for training for future work" was rated only eighth by the teachers and ninth by principals.

"Providing students with experience to encourage them to be good citizens" was rated least important by students. But adult groups listed it in third place (1:9).

If one assumes that Illinois is representative of other states, public opinion parallels that of the leaders in the Federal Government. Note, however, that the educators' priorities are in conflict with this opinion.

TOO MUCH CHANGE

Is there going to be too much change? Parker after an extensive study of statistics concerning the two-year colleges, the politics and legislation expressed his opinion thus:

> In the view of this writer, the oscillating pendulum of educational public opinion, . . ., has swung, or may swing too far from the academic base of the liberal arts. Indeed, the caution flags should be out against an educational course that leads to a continual restriction of the liberal arts and general education so that career education* programs, while apparently being broadened in their vocational scope, are in effect being narrowed into overly specialized career education channels.
>
> This is not to denigrate the career education* options - indeed, this writer has been most supportive of them - but there will be a need for balance between them and the liberal arts studies (20:463)

James A. Peterson and Dick Park examined the possible pitfalls of career education** and voiced this concern:

> Career education, the most expansive human resources development program the government has ever proposed, could, depending upon the value systems which it espouses, be near the final step in subordinating the education system to the production system. It is possible that historians of the future will look upon our time as another Dark Age, this time blanketed by industry rather than the church (22:621).

MEANING FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

What does all of this discussion, debate and planning by the Federal Government and foundations such as The Carnegie Foundation and Mellon Foundation mean to you? It means that you are going to have to change, whether you consider yourself an occupational or liberal arts educator.

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* Career education as used by Parker is actually Occupational Education, i.e., preparation for job entry level.

** Career education is an educational process that is integrated within any curriculum to enable an individual to assess his or her capabilities and assess these capabilities for succeeding within the world of work.

Change is not easy to initiate or to do. As you may know, Socrates was "invited" to drink hemlock when he proposed changing the curriculum in the educational system of his time. Change is a daily part of our lives. The societal values of what should be taught change. So each educator must change, but according to an intelligent assessment of what that change if it is made may cause.

In considering change, it must first be remembered that the community college education, excluding continuing education, is designed for two years. This is not enough time to give an adequate liberal arts education or occupational education - at least one that educators seem to want to give. The time limitation means we must question what we are teaching.

Concerning the limitations of time, the occupational educator should remember the term "entry level competency." There may be a tendency to overteach some skills and knowledge. The experienced technician (or even engineer) becomes the goal of optimum education rather than the skills and knowledge needed for successful entry into work. Programs or courses can be initiated for upgrading persons once they graduate.

The liberal arts educator faces the problem of time and hence the selection of the more important aspects of a liberalizing education. The selection process will depend upon establishing criteria. Perhaps some criteria may be derived from this problem. Occupational educators know that one of the greatest problems in business and industry is persons' inability to communicate and work with each other. The question then is "How can we (occupational and liberal arts educators) design a curriculum to teach attitudes to enable the students to communicate and work with others on the job?" The same question can also contain the words 'off the job.'

If you were to examine the curricula of some four-year colleges and universities you would find two departments, e.g., history and technology, offering a similar course, History of Technology. Therefore, articulation within the college must be accomplished. Duplication of effort within the two years is very costly to the student.

Gehret wrote about conflict between occupational and liberal arts educators for "student loyalties." We must realize that we "fight" for student loyalty both consciously and unconsciously. We must ask, "Have I given any student/s verbal or non-verbal expressions of disapproval of an area of study?" Examples of verbal responses might be, They have lost contact with reality? or You won't get ahead in that area? We must ask what facts exist to prove or disprove such statements.

There are inferences in every media which tend to alienate occupational and liberal arts educators from each other. A recent television program had one actor portraying a construction foreman. Of course, a beautiful girl asked him, "You have a MBA (masters in business administration) and are working in construction??" A novel on teenagers had one scene where a girl stopped dating a senior because he was planning to attend a technical institute.

A novel experience occurred when I moved to New Jersey. My hobby is gardening so I was digging in the yard one week after moving to my new home. One of the neighbors walked over to see what I was doing. During the conversation the person asked what I did. I said I worked at Rutgers University. The person asked, "As a custodian?" "No" I replied, "I am a professor in the Graduate School of Education." The person's immediate response was, "And you're working with your hands!"

Again, referring to Gehret's conclusion that "If it is true, . . ., that the average American will change jobs every seven years in the decades ahead, then the ability to adjust to new situations would appear to be a valid argument for broad preparation for work and life (8:F-3). For occupational educators this means curriculum must be structured on a cluster concept rather than a single job concept. Angelo Gillie is but one person who recommends this concept for preparing people for the future. The liberal arts educator must project to the future to predict life demands and structure the curriculum accordingly.

The liberal arts educator must find out what occupational potential there is for persons who have aptitude and/or talent in liberal arts studies. I, personally, cannot remember after four years of English and English Literature in high school and three years of the same in college of any mention of potential jobs for persons who excelled in English. It does not require much time to intergrate such information into the curriculum. Those persons advocating career education (not occupational education) are saying it is necessary to integrate such information into every curricula in the schools.

In summary, the value of occupational and liberal arts education in the community college is a means to an end. The end being life that is satisfactory to the individual and society. Occupational education should give persons the technological skills to obtain entry level employment and also attitudes to succeed in work. Liberal arts education should give persons a "Humane social consciousness." Occupational and liberal arts education are both essential to every person.

The community college is gaining respect. A comment in U.S. News & World Report shows the effect community colleges can have.

"The rapid spread of community and junior colleges means life in a small town no longer has to be an educational or cultural exile (23:46)." I am equating the words "educational or cultural" to mean occupational and liberal arts education. The society wants them. They must be available.

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